F.G.A.M. Aarts   H.Chr. W

A Contrastive Grammar of English and Dutch

Contrastieve grammatica
Engels/Nederlands

EN

**A Contrastive Grammar
of English and Dutch**

———

Contrastieve grammatica
Engels/Nederlands

To Professor R.W. Zandvoort

F.G.A.M. Aarts   H.Chr. Wekker

A Contrastive Grammar of English and Dutch

Contrastieve grammatica
Engels/Nederlands

Contents

PART TWO: THE STRUCTURES OF ENGLISH AND DUTCH
COMPARED

Chapter 3: **Nouns, Noun Phrases and Pronouns**

Chapter 4: **Verbs and Verb Phrases**

Chapter 6: **The Sentence**

Preface

This book is an attempt to contribute to the contrastive study of the syntax of English and Dutch. Although it is not the first contrastive grammar of the two languages to be published in Holland, it is undoubtedly the most comprehensive. In writing *A Contrastive Grammar of English and Dutch* (henceforth CGED), we have been fortunate in having at our disposal the two most exhaustive descriptions of English and Dutch published to date: *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (CGEL), by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik, which appeared in 1985, and the *Algemene Nederlandse Spraakkunst* (ANS), by G. Geerts, W. Haeseryn, J. de Rooij and M.C. van den Toorn, published in 1984. Both grammars are based on a traditional descriptive framework; this also holds true for CGED.

CGED consists of two parts. Part One ('A Concise English Grammar') provides an overview of the main points of English syntax. It introduces students to the concepts and terminology they require in order to be able to compare the syntactic structures of English and Dutch. Part One consists of two chapters. In Chapter 1 the questions 'What is grammar?' and 'What is contrastive grammar?' are dealt with briefly. This chapter gives the student an idea of what is understood by the grammatical description of a language and also of what the contrastive grammarian has in mind when he sets out to make a comparison of the grammars of two languages. Chapter 2 deals with the units of grammatical description: the morpheme, the word, the phrase and the sentence.

Part Two ('The Structures of English and Dutch Compared') is a contrastive grammar, which presents a systematic study of the major differences in the syntax of English and Dutch at the word, phrase and sentence level.

CGED is intended as a course and reference book for Dutch–speaking students of English at universities, teacher training colleges and schools for translators. Our aim has been primarily pedagogical. In contrasting the syntax of English and Dutch we seek to enhance students' awareness of the differences and similarities between the two languages. Our principal goal has been to draw their attention to those areas where English and Dutch differ in interesting ways. In many cases it is these points that are known to constitute obstac-

les from the learner's point of view.

   In writing this book we have greatly benefited from the critical acumen of
our colleagues Phil Hyams, Eric Kellerman, Alasdair MacDonald and Paul
Waterval, who read parts of the manuscript and provided many useful com-
ments. We are also very grateful to Chris Wouters for the meticulous care with
which she typed the successive versions of the text.

PART ONE

A CONCISE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

1: GRAMMAR AND CONTRASTIVE GRAMMAR

1.1 What is grammar?

A person who speaks a language may be said to have mastered the grammar of that language. Knowing a language can be equated with knowing its grammar. The word 'grammar', as used here, refers to the set of rules that the speakers of a language carry around in their heads and that they employ in producing and interpreting sentences. The word 'grammar' also refers of course to descriptions of these rules in books. It is the job of the linguist to provide such descriptions.

Although the number of sentences in a language is infinite (the reason being that there is no longest sentence), the grammar must contain a finite set of rules. If this were not the case, languages could neither be learned nor described. In spite of the fact that the number of rules is finite, the description of the grammar of a language is by no means an easy undertaking. What we provide in this section is a very simple sketch of what a grammar looks like.

Sentences may be said to have three properties: syntactic, semantic and phonological. The grammar must therefore contain three components (see figure 1):
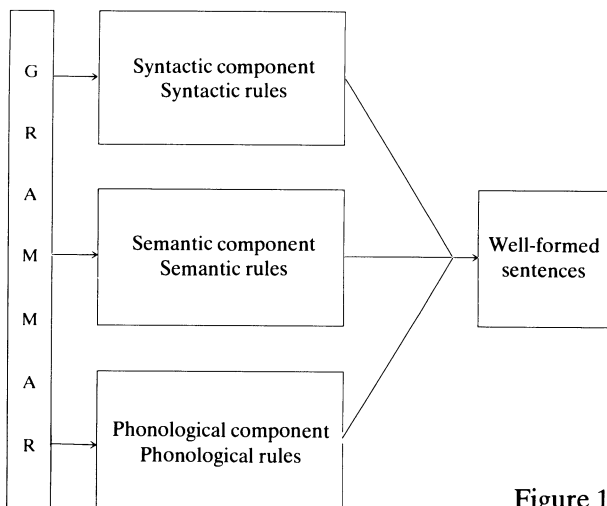
Figure 1

The three components of the grammar contain rules that account for:

1. the syntactic well–formedness of sentences, that is their formation,
2. the semantic well–formedness of sentences, that is their interpretation,
3. the phonological well–formedness of sentences, that is their pronunciation.

Well–formed sentences are those that native speakers accept as possible sentences of their language. None of the (b) sentences below is a well–formed sentence in English (hence they are marked with an asterisk):

(1)a.   Did they arrive last night?
   b.   *Arrived they last night? (syntactically ill–formed)
(2)a.   Mary's husband is ill again
   b.   *Mary's husband is pregnant again (semantically ill–formed)
(3)a.   The man was very angry
   b.   *Ze man was very angry (phonologically ill–formed)

Each component of the grammar will be briefly discussed below.

The syntactic component

Syntax is that part of the grammar which explains how words are put together to form syntactically well–formed sentences. In the examples below the asterisked sentences are all blocked by the syntactic rules of English grammar:

(4)a.   They told him to see a doctor
   b.   They wanted him to see a doctor
   c.   He was told to see a doctor
   d.   *He was wanted to see a doctor

(5)a.   His father was a doctor
   b.   His father wanted a doctor
   c.   Was his father a doctor?
   d.   *Wanted his father a doctor?

(6)a.   It is likely that Igor is a spy
   b.   it is obvious that Igor is a spy
   c.   Igor is likely to be a spy
   d.   *Igor is obvious to be a spy

To comment only on the last example, these sentences show that both *likely*

and *obvious* can be followed by a *that*–clause in a construction introduced by *it*. However, the alternative construction (c) is only possible with *likely*, not with *obvious*. The syntactic component of the grammar must account for this.

The semantic component

The semantic component of the grammar is concerned with the meaning or interpretation of sentences. Semantic rules specify which sentences are semantically well–formed and which are not. The asterisked sentences below are semantically absurd, although from a syntactic point of view there is nothing wrong with them:

(7)a.   A spaniel is a dog
    b.   *A dog is a spaniel

(8)a.   She believed that you were gone, but you weren't
    b.   *She realized that you were gone, but you weren't

(9)a.   The boys frightened the cat
    b.   *The boys frightened the problem

It is not difficult to see what is wrong with the (b) examples. Sentence (7b), for instance, violates a semantic rule which says that it is possible to claim that 'An X is a Y', provided that X is a member of the set referred to by Y. In sentence (9b) a rule is violated which says that the verb *frighten* must be followed by a noun with the feature [+animate].

   Semantic rules also account for the fact that sentence (10) is a contradiction, that sentence (11) is ambiguous (that is, has more than one meaning), that sentence (12) is a tautology (that is, a sentence which is invariably true) and that in sentence (13) the pronoun *he* cannot refer to *Jim*:

(10)   *The bachelors I know are married
(11)   Barbara cannot bear children
(12)   Orphans have no parents
(13)   He hoped that Jim would be invited

The phonological component

The phonological component of the grammar takes care of the sound system of the language. For a sentence to be phonologically well–formed in English it must contain words consisting of sequences of English sounds in positions and

combinations that the rules of the phonological component allow. Moreover a sentence must be pronounced with appropriate stress and intonation patterns.

Sentences can be phonologically ill–formed for a variety of reasons. The asterisked examples below are ill–formed because they contain words that are mispronounced (14b) or wrongly stressed (15b):

(14)a.　Our third attempt was successful
　　b.　*Our sird attempt was successful

(15)a.　In this de′mocracy every pro′fessor loves ′politics
　　b.　*In this ′democracy every ′professor loves po′litics

Sentences can also be ill–formed because they contain words that are phonologically impossible in English. Cf.:

(16)a.　Janet has bought a new ring
　　b.　*Janet has bought a new nging

(17)a.　After the winter came the spring
　　b.　*After the winter came the shpring

(18)a.　Harry was reading a comic strip
　　b.　*Harry was reading a comic stlip

The word *nging* in (16b) is impossible because /ŋ/ cannot occur initially in English words. The words *shpring* in (17b) and *stlip* in (18b) are likewise impossible, because they violate a phonological rule in English which says that the first of three initial consonants in a word must be /s/. This rules out the word /*ʃprɪŋ/. Moreover this initial /s/ cannot occur in the sequences /spw–/, /stw–/ and /stl–/. This rules out the word /*stlɪp/.

Sentences 19(a–d) illustrate the importance of pronouncing sentences with the appropriate intonation. Each of these examples (which have the same written form) has the nucleus (or sentence accent) on a different part of the sentence and is therefore pronounced with a different intonation. This means that the meaning of (19a) cannot be signalled by the intonation given to (19b,c or d). Each of these sentences, in order to be phonologically well–formed, requires its own intonation:

(19)a.　Peter ONLY invited Jane to the party (=the only one who invited
　　　　Jane was Peter)
　　b.　Peter only INVITED Jane to the party (=he did nothing else but
　　　　invite her)

    c.   Peter only invited JANE to the party (=he invited Jane, but no one else)

    d.   Peter only invited Jane to the PARTY (=he did not invite her to anything else)

To summarize, we have defined a grammar as a finite set of rules which account for the syntactic, semantic and phonological properties of the infinite number of well–formed sentences in a language. Well–formed sentences are constructed in accordance with the syntactic, semantic and phonological rules of the grammar. Ill–formed sentences violate one or more rules. To describe a language is to specify the rules that make up its grammar.

    Although a complete grammar consists of a syntactic, a semantic and a phonological component, the concise English grammar in PART ONE of this book is concerned with syntactic rules only.

1.2   What is contrastive grammar?

Linguists are not only interested in the grammars of individual languages such as English, French, German and Dutch, but also in comparing and contrasting grammars. The purpose of a contrastive description is twofold:

    1.   to find out more about human language in general, particularly about those properties that all languages have in common. These properties are called linguistic universals.

    2.   to discover the similarities and differences between the grammars of specific languages.

In order to carry out a contrastive analysis of two languages the following conditions must be met:

    1.   descriptions of the languages in question must be available.

    2.   in order to be comparable these descriptions must be based on the same descriptive model.

If these conditions are met, the contrastive linguist can proceed to compare the languages he is interested in. A complete contrastive description of the grammars of two languages should be concerned with all three levels of linguistic organization: the syntactic level, the semantic level and the phonological level.

The syntactic level

A comparison of two languages at the syntactic level is likely to show that they have rules in common, but also that there are rules which apply in one language but not in the other. English and Dutch share a large number of syntactic rules, but they both have rules that are language–specific.

   Dutch, for example, has a different word order in subclauses from that in main clauses, whereas in English the order of the words is the same in both types of clause. Cf.:

   (20) He admires you   – Hij bewondert je
   (21) I know he admires you   – Ik weet dat hij je bewondert

A comparison of the structure of relative clauses shows that the relative pronoun can be left out under certain conditions in restrictive relative clauses in English, but that is impossible in Dutch. Cf.:

   (22) These are the books I   – *Dit zijn de boeken ik gekocht heb
          bought
   (23) He is the man the police – *Hij is de man de politie zoekt
          are looking for

A third example of a language–specific syntactic rule is the rule which allows the indirect object of an active sentence to become the subject of the corresponding passive sentence. This is possible in English, but not in Dutch. Cf.:

   (24) They gave me a watch on   – Ze gaven me een horloge op mijn
          my birthday – I was   verjaardag – *Ik werd een
          given a watch on my   horloge gegeven op mijn
          birthday   verjaardag

The semantic level

At the semantic level two languages can be contrasted by comparing the ways in which they express ideas and concepts and refer to extra–linguistic reality. One obvious way of contrasting two languages at this level is to investigate their vocabularies. In comparing the lexical systems of English and Dutch we can look at individual lexical items and at lexical fields. Among the observations we can make are the following:

1.   a comparison of individual lexical items shows that English often has two words to refer to different (but related) concepts, where Dutch has only one. Cf.:

English   Dutch

loaf   – bread   brood
meat   – flesh   vlees
carry   – wear   dragen
learn   – teach   leren

2. a comparison of lexical fields shows that English and Dutch do not ne-
    cessarily express extra–linguistic relations in exactly the same way. Con-
    sider, for example, the field of kinship, some members of which are listed
    below:

English   Dutch

father   – mother   vader   – moeder
uncle   – aunt   oom   – tante

but:

cousin   – cousin   neef   – nicht
nephew – niece   neef   – nicht

The phonological level

At the phonological level it is necessary to compare, for example, the vowel
and consonant systems of the languages that are being contrasted. In a com-
parison of the phonological systems of English and Dutch it is possible to make
statements like the following:

1. both languages have long vowels, but none of the English long vowels oc-
    curs in Dutch and vice versa. Cf.:

English   Dutch

/i:/   as in *seen*   /e./   as in *heet*
/u:/   as in *soon*   /ø./   as in *meute*
/a:/   as in *farm*   /o./   as in *room*
/ɔ:/   as in *born*   /a./   as in *kraam*
/ɜ:/   as in *learn*

2.   English, unlike Dutch, has final voiced consonants. Cf.:

English   Dutch

bed   /bed/   *bed*   /bɛt/
rib   /rɪb/   *rib*   /rɪp/
jazz /dʒæz/   *jazz* /dʒɛs/

3.   English has an aspirated /p/, /t/ and /k/ in syllable–initial position, where
     Dutch has non–aspirated plosives. Cf.:

English   Dutch

pin /pʰɪn/   *pin* /pɪn/
tick /tʰɪk/   *tik*   /tɪk/
kin /kʰɪn/   *kin* /kɪn/

The contrastive grammar that we present in PART TWO of this book is only
concerned with the syntax of English and Dutch. Moreover, we deal with se-
lected areas only: no attempt has been made to offer an exhaustive compari-
son. Our aim is chiefly pedagogical. Although we believe that, by highlighting
the similarities and differences between English and Dutch syntax, we can en-
hance the student's linguistic insight, the main purpose of PART TWO is to
draw attention to learning obstacles and thus to facilitate the language–learn-
ing process.

2: THE UNITS OF GRAMMATICAL DESCRIPTION

2.1   Introduction

Sentences can be discussed in terms of the units of which they are composed. Let us begin by making the fairly obvious claim that sentences consist of words. We have no difficulty, for example, in dividing the following sentences into three and nine words respectively:

Children / love / toys
John / has / given/ his / son / a / Jaguar / for / Christmas

It is obvious, however, that a description of a sentence that confines itself to a list of the words of which the sentence is composed has little or no value. Consider, for example, the following sentences, which contain exactly the same words. Yet the first sentence differs radically in meaning from the second and both differ from the third, which is ungrammatical:

Mary painted the door red
Mary painted the red door
*Painted red the Mary door

Sentences, then, cannot simply be described in terms of the words they contain. The reason is that words in sentences hang together and exhibit certain relationships. It is these relationships that play a crucial role in the interpretation of the sentence.

One of the most important clues to the meaning of a sentence is word order, as we have illustrated above. Consider the following additional examples:

Peter wants to marry Veronica
Peter wants Veronica to marry

They had built a house
They had a house built

That word order is not the only factor that plays a part in the interpretation of a sentence is evident when we examine ambiguous sentences, that is sentences that allow two or more interpretations. For example, the interpretation of the two sentences below depends not only on the words used and on word order but also on syntactic relationships, that is on how we group the words together. Each sentence has two interpretations, indicated by means of brackets:

> She hit the man with the bag
> She hit [[the man][with the bag]]
> She hit [the man] [with the bag]
>
> The mother of Peter and John may come, too
> [[The mother][of Peter and John]] may come, too
> [[The mother of Peter] and [John]] may come, too

To summarize, we can say that the interpretation of a sentence depends not only on the actual words used but also on word order and syntactic relationships. These enable us to answer questions like 'What goes with what?' and 'What role does a particular constituent play?'. Other factors (such as context) play a part, but they will not be discussed here.

Let us now return to a sentence already quoted above:

> John has given his son a Jaguar for Christmas

Everyone will agree that this sentence contains nine words, but it is also easy to see that some of the words in this sentence can be grouped together, whereas others cannot. Of the two segmentations below only the first is correct:

> John / has given / his son / a Jaguar / for Christmas
> John / has given his / son a / Jaguar for / Christmas

As the first segmentation shows, the words can be grouped together in larger clusters. Such coherent groups of words are called phrases. This example contains five phrases in all, three noun phrases (*John*, *his son* and *a Jaguar*), one verb phrase (*has given*) and one prepositional phrase (*for Christmas*). Apart from noun phrases (NPs), verb phrases (VPs) and prepositional phrases (PPs), we distinguish adjective phrases (AdjPs) and adverb phrases (AdvPs).

Phrases in turn combine to form sentences. Some of the possible combinations are exemplified below:

NP + VP	: Bill / was driving
	Two hours / elapsed
NP + VP + NP	: Women / love / flowers
	Benjamin Britten / composed / that opera
NP + VP + AdjP	: John's marriage / is / very happy
	Your solution / has proved / impossible
NP + VP + NP + NP	: Frank / gave / me / a bottle of gin
	The boss / called / Tim / a liar
	Clare's father / has bought / her / a flat
NP + VP + NP + PP	: She / put / the vase / in the corner
	Mr Jones / drove / the nail / into the wall
NP + VP + PP	: The guests / arrived / in the afternoon
	The plane / crashed / on a cottage
NP + VP + AdvP	: My children / work / very hard
	She / sings / quite well

Apart from the sentence, the phrase and the word, we can distinguish a fourth unit, viz. the morpheme. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of grammatical analysis. Morphemes combine to form words. Thus the word *un-kindness* consists of three morphemes: *un–*, *kind* and *–ness*.

Between the units of grammatical analysis (morpheme–word–phrase–sentence) there exists a hierarchical relationship which can be shown by putting them on a rankscale.

TEXT

SENTENCE

PHRASE

WORD
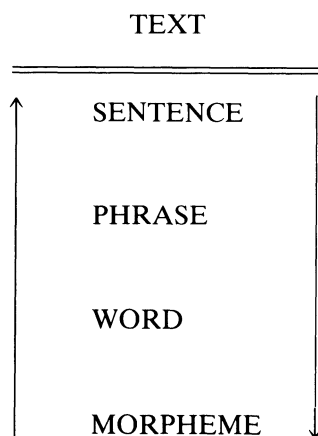
MORPHEME

The arrows indicate that the rank scale can be read from bottom to top or vice versa. When read from bottom to top the rank scale says that the lower unit forms all or part of the structure of the next highest unit. Thus morphemes function in the structure of words, words in the structure of phrases and phrases in the structure of sentences. In the example below the morpheme *–ly* functions in the structure of the word *friendly*, which functions in the structure of the phrase *very friendly*, which, in turn, functions in the structure of the sentence *He is very friendly*. The dotted line indicates that the sentence is treated here as the highest unit on the grammatical rank scale and that we are not concerned with the obvious fact that sentences function in larger linguistic contexts (such as the dialogue below). This is the domain of text grammar.

Text: A. Where are you going?
                       B. I'm going to see the new manager
                       A. What's he like?
                       B. He is very friendly

Sentence   :   He is very friendly

Phrase   :   very friendly

Word   :   friendly

Morpheme :   –ly
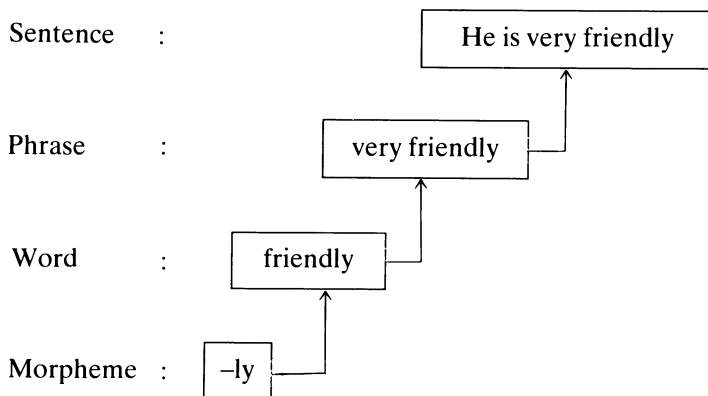
The rank scale can also be read from top to bottom. In that case the rank scale says that the higher unit consists of one or more members of the unit next below. Thus sentences consist of one or more phrases, phrases of one or more words and words of one or more morphemes. The morpheme is the lowest unit on the rank scale. Morphemes cannot be further segmented at the grammatical level of analysis.

The relationship between the units on the rank scale may simply be one–to–one. In other words, it is possible for a particular unit to consist of only one member of the unit next below. This relationship may manifest itself right down the rank scale. Thus *John* (e.g. as an answer to the question *Who did*

that?) may be described as a sentence that consists of one phrase that consists of one word that consists of one morpheme. The relationships are more complicated in a sentence like *Mary's guests slowly walked to the garden*:

one sentence	: Mary's guests slowly walked to the garden
four phrases	: Mary's guests/slowly/walked/to the garden
seven words	: Mary's/guests/slowly/walked/to/the/garden
eleven morphemes	: Mary/s/guest/s/slow/ly/walk/ed/to/the/garden

A fifth unit (the clause) is often distinguished as a unit intermediate between the phrase and the sentence. To simplify our description we shall not distinguish more than four units on the rank scale. When we employ the label 'clause', it is with reference to embedded sentences, that is sentences that function in the structure of other sentences, as in *I know why he did it* and in phrases, as in *the reason why he did it*.

The relationships among the units on the rank scale are not as straightforward as we have represented them so far. We have assumed that units can only consist of members of the unit next below: sentences consist of phrases, phrases of words and words of morphemes. It is necessary, however, to take account of a number of additional possibilities. A sentence, for example, may contain a constituent of the same rank (another sentence) and a phrase may contain a constituent of the same rank (another phrase) or a constituent of a rank higher than itself (a sentence). Examples:

Sentence in sentence	: [I believe [that you are wrong]]
Phrase in phrase	: [meetings [of great importance]]
Sentence in phrase	: [the firm [who rang me up last night]]

In the following sections (2.2 – 2.5) the four units of the grammatical rank scale will be discussed in detail.

2.2 The morpheme

The morpheme can be defined as the smallest meaningful unit on the grammatical rank scale. This means that morphemes cannot be analysed any further and hence have no structure of their own. Morphemes function in the structure of the next highest unit, the word.

Morphemes can be classified according to the role they play in the structure of words. It is possible to distinguish between free morphemes and bound morphemes: free morphemes can occur on their own, bound morphemes cannot. The word *intercontinental*, for example, consists of three morphemes, one free morpheme (*continent*) and two bound morphemes (*inter–* and *–al*). In the structure of the word *intercontinental* the free morpheme *continent* is the root (or stem). Bound morphemes are called affixes. Those preceding the root are prefixes, those following the root are suffixes. Examples:

Prefix	Root	Suffix	Suffix
un	think	able	
dis	place	ment	
de	form	ation	
mal	function		
pre	cook		
dis	interest	ed	ness
un	condition	al	ly
im	press	ion	ism
	master	ship	
	paint	er	
	four	th	
	great	ly	
	walk	ed	
	boy	s	
	great	er	

Table 2.1

As the first three examples in table 2.1 show, words can consist of a root preceded by a prefix and followed by a suffix. It is useful in this connection to make a distinction between root (or stem) and base. The root is that part of a word that is left when all the affixes have been removed. Thus in *unfavourable* and *friendliness* the roots are *favour* and *friend*, respectively. A base is any form to which an affix can be added. The base of a word may be identical with the root. Thus the negative prefix *un–* can be added to the root *ripe*, which is at the same time the base. However, not every base is a root. When we form the word *unfavourable*, we add the prefix *un–* to the base *favourable*, the root being *favour*.

Prefixes are always derivational, suffixes are either derivational or inflectional. Inflectional suffixes in English are used to mark, for example, the singular–plural contrast in nouns or the present tense–past tense contrast in regular verbs. Derivational suffixes are added to bases to form new words, for example to form nouns from adjectives (*small* → *smallness*). English has the following inflectional suffixes:

Verbs:

3rd person singular present tense indicative	: walk–s
past tense	: walk–ed
–*ing* participle	: walk–ing
–*ed* participle	: walk–ed

Nouns:

plural	: boy–s
genitive singular	: boy–'s
genitive plural	: men–'s

Adjectives/Adverbs:

comparative	: great–er, soon–er
superlative	: great–est, soon–est

Examples of derivational suffixes are:

–able	: eat–able, read–able
–ation	: moderniz–ation, relax–ation
–dom	: king–dom, star–dom
–hood	: child–hood, boy–hood
–ify	: simpl–ify, typ–ify
–ish	: girl–ish, green–ish
–ity	: moral–ity, rapid–ity
–ize	: legal–ize, symbol–ize
–less	: top–less, count–less
–ness	: great–ness, clever–ness

2.3   The word

As we have seen above, morphemes are used as building–blocks in the structure of words. Words minimally consist of one (free) morpheme. Examples are words like *book, friend, small* and *take*. Words consisting of two or more con-

stituents are either compounds (*bookcase, handbook*) or words involving affixation (*friendship, smallness, disbelieve, uninteresting, girls, added*).

When we examine the structure of English words, we find that segmentation is often straightforward, as in the case of words like *disinterestedness* and *unobjectionable*, which consist of roots (*interest* and *object* respectively) to which prefixes and suffixes have been added in such a way that the words can easily be decomposed into their constituent elements. Their structure may be represented as follows:

Many English words, however, are difficult to analyse into their constituent morphemes. Examples are irregular plurals (like *men* and *feet*) and irregular past tense forms (like *broke* and *took*). On the analogy of the analysis of regular forms like *boy–s* and *walk–ed* irregular forms like *men* and *broke* may be said to consist of two morphemes, *man* + plural morpheme and *break* + past tense morpheme, respectively.

Word classes

In an ideal situation it would be possible to assign all the words of a language to a number of homogeneous classes. However, this ideal situation does not seem to exist, since it is fairly difficult to find criteria that lead to a classification that is both exhaustive and satisfactory. No matter what criteria we use, we will always find that we are left with words that are hard to classify or that belong to more than one class. In a discussion of English word classes it is possible to use several criteria: semantic, morphological and syntactic. Ideally speaking, all members of a particular word class should share the same semantic, morphological and syntactic properties. Unfortunately this is a requirement which is not met by the facts.

As far as semantic criteria are concerned it is possible to assign many words to classes on the basis of the concepts they refer to. Thus the class of nouns has traditionally been defined as consisting of words that refer to people, animals and things, the class of verbs as consisting of words that refer to actions, events and states and the class of adjectives as being composed of words that refer to qualities. A moment's reflection, however, shows that many words which, from a semantic point of view, belong to one class, must on morphological and/or syntactic grounds be assigned to another. For example, words like *ner-*

vousness and *indignation* no doubt refer to states, yet there are valid grounds for not calling them verbs but nouns.

We can invoke morphological criteria in the case of derivational and inflectional suffixes that are uniquely associated with a particular class of words. Thus we can claim that words in *–ize* are verbs and that words in *–ity* belong to the class of nouns. In the table below the word classes on the left are typically associated with the inflectional and derivational suffixes on the right:

	Inflectional suffixes	Derivational suffixes
Verbs	walk–s walk–ed walk–ing walk–ed	simpl–ify modern–ize
Nouns	boy–s boy–'s men–'s	found–ation dual–ity dark–ness child–hood friend–ship
Adjectives	great–er great–est	work–able fool–ish life–less
Adverbs	—	back–ward(s) cross–wise

Morphological criteria are not always reliable, either. For example, although many English adverbs end in *–ly*, the class of adverbs includes items that lack this ending. Moreover, there are words in *–ly* that belong to the class of adjectives such as *friendly, lively, manly* and *cowardly*. The suffix *–ly*, then, cannot always be used to identify English adverbs.

When classifying words according to syntactic criteria one of the factors we can examine is the typical role(s) they play in the structure of sentences. Consider the following sentences, all of which contain only three positions or slots:

(1)	(2)	(3)
Boys	love	heroes
Students	are	poor
Nurses	work	efficiently

Position (2) in the sentences above can only be filled by members of the class of verbs, which have a characteristically 'central' role in sentence structure. Position (1) is a typical slot for nouns. Position (3) can be filled by nouns but also by members of other word classes depending on the verb used in position (2). That words like *boys, heroes, students* and *nurses* belong to a different word class from words like *poor* (an adjective) and *efficiently* (an adverb) can be seen when we substitute them for each other. For example, we can have

> Nurses love heroes
> Students work efficiently

but not

> *Poor love heroes
> *Efficiently are poor
> *Students are efficiently
> *Nurses work poor

Verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs, then, can be recognized on the basis of their syntactic behaviour in sentences and this claim can also be made for other classes of words.

In English we can distinguish the following word classes, which will be dealt with in 2.3.1 – 2.3.11:

Nouns	Articles
Verbs	Numerals
Adjectives	Pronouns
Adverbs	Quantifiers
Prepositions	Interjections
Conjunctions	

Some of these classes (for example, articles and pronouns) are easily definable in the sense that it is possible to list all their members. Other classes (for example nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs) consist of an indefinitely large number of members and are capable of being extended.

2.3.1   Nouns

Morphologically, many words can be identified as nouns in English on the basis

of typical derivational suffixes like *–ation, –ity, –hood* and *–ness: plantation, reality, brotherhood, shyness*.

Most English nouns have two forms:

1. the base	: *boy, mile*
2. the base + inflectional suffix, to express	
the plural	: *boys, miles*
the genitive singular	: *boy's, mile's*
the genitive plural	: *boys', miles'*

One of the characteristic properties of most nouns is their ability to take an inflectional suffix to express number. Many English nouns can also take an inflectional suffix to express the genitive case.

Number

Nouns express the opposition between 'one' (singular) and 'more than one' (plural) by means of an inflectional suffix, spelt *–s* or *–es*, and pronounced /ɪz/, /z/ or /s/, depending on the final sound of the base (see Appendix III). Examples:

/ɪz/	/z/	/s/
boxes	boys	books
cases	pianos	cats
churches	systems	lips
roses	words	months

Many English nouns have irregular plurals. See 3.2.1.

Note that not all English nouns are capable of expressing the singular– plural contrast. Many nouns are invariable: they occur in the singular only or in the plural only. The former are always followed by a singular verb, some of the latter by a singular verb, others by a plural verb. Examples:

Singular verb only		Plural verb only	
classics	measles	arrears	proceeds
linguistics	darts	clothes	outskirts
physics	news	savings	trousers

Cf.: Linguistics *is* a fascinating subject
My savings *are* in the bank

A few collective nouns in English occur only in the singular, but are usually followed by a plural verb. This class includes nouns like *cattle, clergy, gentry, youth, people, police* and *vermin*. Examples:

> The clergy *are* against these reforms
> The police *say* that he is guilty

Case

In languages that have a case system, the functions of words in sentences are marked by means of special suffixes. Thus in Latin the subject of a sentence is marked by a different ending from the direct object. Cf.:

> Petrus amat Mariam   – Peter loves Mary
> Maria amat Petrum   – Mary loves Peter

English does not have an elaborate case system; there are only two cases for nouns: the *common case* (also called 'unmarked case') and the *genitive case* (on the spelling and the pronunciation of the genitive suffix see Appendix III).

In English the use of the genitive suffix is on the whole restricted to animate nouns, being especially common with nouns referring to persons. However, it is also found with nouns denoting animals, with temporal nouns and in some stereotyped expressions. Examples:

> Jim's girlfriend   the cat's paws   tonight's meeting
>
> mother's fur coat   a moment's thought   for God's sake

Syntactic function

Syntactically, nouns are characterized by the fact that they function as heads in the structure of the noun phrase (see 2.4.2.1).

Consider the following noun phrases, in all of which the noun *man* is the head:

> the *man*
> the old *man*
> the old *man* in the corner
> the grumpy old *man* in the corner who has just come in

Noun classes

On syntactic grounds nouns can be classified as follows:

```
          ┌── Proper nouns
          │
          │                  ┌── Count nouns     (also called class nouns)
Nouns ──┤                  │
          │                  │
          └── Common nouns ──┤
                             │
                             └── Non–count nouns  (also called mass nouns)
```
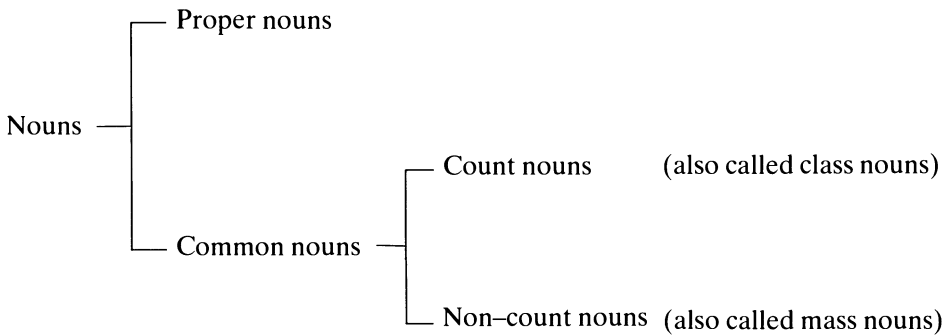
Proper nouns:

Cyril	London	Europe
Smith	Big Ben	England

Count nouns:

book	child	flower
house	dog	window

Non–count nouns:

bread	furniture	progress
news	advice	cowardice

Proper nouns have unique reference. Hence they do not normally occur in the plural, or take articles, numerals and quantifiers (such as *many, few* and *several*). This explains the ungrammaticality of:

*Cyrils	*the Europe
*an England	*many Londons

Note, however, that proper nouns can, under certain conditions, occur in the plural and be preceded by modifying words:

I know two Cyrils
Does he think he is a Rembrandt?
This is the England of the 1980's

Note also that some proper nouns always take the definite article:

The Hague	The United States
The Netherlands	The Thames

Count nouns differ from non–count nouns in several respects. Count nouns have both singular and plural forms, non–count nouns occur either in the singular only or in the plural only. Examples:

Count nouns		Non–count nouns			
		singular only		plural only	
body	thing	vinegar	work	thanks	spectacles
table	idea	pepper	evidence	clothes	means
dog	word	pork	education	riches	fireworks
tiger	concept	behaviour	safety	arrears	premises
baby	pen	research	literature	trousers	politics

Count nouns can be preceded by the definite and indefinite articles and by numerals. Non–count nouns can only be preceded by the definite article and (if singular) by the quantifiers *much* and *little*. Non–count nouns do not require a modifying word, singular count nouns do. Cf.:

Count nouns	Non–count nouns
the book	the butter
a book	*a butter
(two) books	*(two) butters
*much/little book	much/little butter
*book	butter

Many nouns in English belong to the subclass of count nouns in one meaning and to the subclass of non–count nouns in another meaning. Their syntactic behaviour varies accordingly. Some dictionaries (e.g. OALD and LDOCE) mark the different uses as [C] (=countable) and [U] (=uncountable), respectively. Examples:

	Count [C]	Non–count [U]
cheese	: We bought two cheeses	Cheese is made from milk
chocolate	: Have a chocolate	Do you like chocolate?

decision	: Have you come to a decision?	That man lacks decision
egg	: Don't eat too many eggs	There's some egg on your shirt

On semantic grounds a distinction is sometimes made between *concrete* and *abstract* nouns. This distinction cuts across the grammatical division count/non–count. Examples:

count/concrete	: letter, car, tree
count/abstract	: thought, procedure, drawback
non–count/concrete	: gold, salt, snow
non–count/abstract	: music, literature, pessimism

Gender

Apart from the above classification into proper nouns and common nouns, English nouns can also be classified into masculine, feminine and neuter nouns. This classification depends on the *gender* of the noun and is reflected in the pronouns *he,she* and *it*: masculine nouns are referred to by *he*, feminine nouns by *she* and neuter nouns by *it*. Gender in English is mainly sex–based, that is nouns are masculine if they refer to males, feminine if they refer to females and neuter in all other cases. In this respect English differs from languages like Dutch, French and German, where gender is not sex–based and where it is reflected, for example, in the definite articles: *de/het, le/la* and *der/die/das*. Examples:

masculine	feminine	neuter
father	mother	chair
uncle	aunt	rose
boy	girl	truth

Nouns of dual gender can be referred to by *he* or *she* depending on the sex of the referent. Examples:

cousin	novelist	professor	nurse
doctor	parent	student	friend

Nouns denoting animals can be treated as neuter, though with reference to some we can also use *he* or *she*. Names of ships (and the noun *ship* itself) are either feminine or neuter and this also holds good for names of countries. Collective nouns like *family, crowd, government* and *committee* can take both *it*

and *they*. Finally we should note that the gender distinction is also reflected in the choice of relative pronouns, *who* normally referring to masculine and feminine nouns, *which* to neuter nouns. Collective nouns take either *who* or *which*. Examples:

> Where's the cat? She's out
> The Queen Elizabeth arrives today, but she's five hours late
> England will have to sort out her industrial problems
> The committee is/are meeting tomorrow, when it/they will be
>   discussing the new plan
>
> The man who said this is our headmaster
> The book which he had borrowed had to be returned the next day
> The crowd who were/which was singing in Trafalgar Square had a
>   good time

2.3.2   Verbs

Verbs constitute a class of words with typical properties. In the first place, they can express contrasts with respect to the categories of *tense* (present, past, future, etc.), *mood* (indicative/subjunctive/imperative), *voice* (active/passive) and *aspect* (progressive/non–progressive). Examples:

Tense	:	present	:	John reads a lot
		past	:	John read this book last week
		future	:	John will read this book next week
Mood	:	indicative	:	This book reads well
		subjunctive	:	I insist that he read this book at once
		imperative	:	Read this book now
Voice	:	active	:	All students have read this book
		passive	:	This book has been read by all students
Aspect	:	progressive	:	I am reading an English novel
		non–progressive	:	I never read English novels

Secondly, verbs typically function as those constituents in sentences that express actions, events or states, while other sentence constituents refer to the agents or victims of these actions or specify when, where or how they took place.

Verbs also have typical morphological properties. For example, many of them are derived from nouns and adjectives by means of the derivational suffix *–en*:

heighten	broaden
strengthen	tighten

Other derivational suffixes that are typical of verbs are *–ify* and *–ise / –ize*, as in:

falsify	nationalise
personify	realize
solidify	sterilize

Most English verbs have five forms: the base and four additional forms that are formed by adding an inflectional suffix to the base. (On the pronunciation of the *–s, –ed* and *–ing* suffixes see Appendix III). The various forms and their uses are exemplified in Table 2.2.

Form	Use	Examples
BASE	1. infinitive (with or without *to*) 2. imperative 3. present tense indicative (except 3rd person singular) 4. present tense subjunctive	He should *wait* for me He used to *wait* for me every day *Wait* for me tonight! I/you/we/they always *wait* for her I insist that he *wait* for me tonight
BASE + *–s*	3rd person singular present tense indicative	He always *waits* for her
BASE + *–ed*	past tense	He *waited* for her every day
BASE + *–ed*	*–ed* participle	He has *waited* for her since lunch
BASE + *–ing*	*–ing* participle	He is *waiting* for her now

Table 2.2

Verb forms are either non–finite or finite. The non–finite forms are the infinitive, the *–ing* participle and the *–ed* participle. The other forms are finite. Finite forms exhibit contrasts of tense (*he waits/he waited*), mood (*he waits/he wait*), person (*I wait/he waits*) and number (*he waits/they wait*). Note that finite forms are not always explicitly marked for these contrasts. For example, the finite form *wait* can be an imperative, a present tense indicative (except 3rd person singular) and a present tense subjunctive. Non–finite forms cannot express contrasts of tense, mood, person and number.

English has well over 200 irregular verbs, that is verbs which form their past tense or their *–ed* participle (or both) in idiosyncratic ways, not by adding the inflectional suffix *–ed* to the base. Examples:

Base	Past tense	*–ed* participle
bear	bore	borne
build	built	built
hit	hit	hit
meet	met	met
run	ran	run
show	showed	shown

For a list of irregular verbs see Appendix I.

Classes of verbs

English verbs can be divided into two classes: auxiliary verbs (or helping verbs) and lexical verbs (or main verbs). Auxiliaries differ from lexical verbs in several respects. Firstly, in the structure of the verb phrase lexical verbs always come last; auxiliaries precede lexical verbs in a fixed order: modal auxiliary – *have – be*. Consider:

Jack will	meet	the girls
Jack will be	meeting	the girls
Jack will have	met	the girls
Jack will have been	met	by the girls

Secondly, auxiliaries cannot normally stand on their own, but must be followed by a lexical verb. Sentences like the following are not exceptions to this rule since the lexical verb (together with other material in the preceding context) may be said to be understood:

| Has John applied for that job? | – Yes, he has (applied for that job) |
| Are you going there next week? | – Yes, I am (going there next week) |

Finally, auxiliaries differ from lexical verbs in their ability to occur in four syntactic constructions without requiring the auxiliary *do*: negation, inversion, code and emphatic affirmation. The mnemonic label 'NICE' is sometimes used to refer to these properties which distinguish auxiliaries from lexical verbs.

Negation

Sentences containing auxiliary verbs can be negated by putting the particle *not* immediately after the auxiliary or by attaching it to the auxiliary to form special negative forms (e.g. *will not, won't*). Sentences containing lexical verbs cannot be negated in this way but require the auxiliary *do*. Cf.:

We shall be there	– We shall not/shan't be there
I could come tomorrow	– I could not/couldn't come tomorrow
He will do it	– He will not/won't do it
Jim likes poetry	– Jim does not/doesn't like poetry
He came every day	– He did not/didn't come every day
	– *He came not/camen't every day

Inversion

In interrogative sentences and in sentences opening with negative adverbs (like *seldom* and *hardly*) auxiliaries precede the subject, whereas lexical verbs require the auxiliary *do*, retaining their position behind the subject. Cf.:

I should go now	– Should I go now?
You will see her again	– Will you see her again?
He had hardly seen me when he ran away	– Hardly had he seen me when he ran away
Peter adores Mary	– Does Peter adore Mary?
	– *Adores Peter Mary?
They spoke English	– Did they speak English?
	– *Spoke they English?

Code

Auxiliaries can occur without lexical verbs in certain types of sentences. For

example, in the (b) sentences below only the auxiliary is repeated, not the lexical verb and other material accompanying it. Cf.:

    a.   Fred can swim and Tom can swim
    b.   Fred can swim and so can Tom

    a.   Should I come tomorrow? Yes, you should come tomorrow
    b.   Should I come tomorrow? Yes, you should

These auxiliaries are said to be used in a kind of 'code', the key to which is provided by the lexical verb in the preceding context (together with whatever material accompanies it). Lexical verbs cannot be used in this way: they are 'picked up' by an appropriate form of the auxiliary *do*. Cf.:

    a.   Eric works hard and Robin works hard
    b. *Eric works hard and so works Robin
    c.   Eric works hard and so does Robin

    a.   Frank plays for Arsenal
    b. *Yes, he plays
    c.   Yes, he does

Emphatic affirmation

The fourth of the so–called NICE properties of auxiliaries is their ability to take the accent in sentences like the following which either affirm a doubtful statement or deny a negative statement:

He may have left early   – He HAS left early
You cannot marry her   – I CAN marry her

Lexical verbs cannot be accented in the same way: they require a form of the auxiliary *do*:

I suppose he likes her   – *He LIKES her
                          He DOES like her

Henry did not say that   – *Well, I'm sure he SAID that
                          Well, I'm sure he DID say that

Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliaries fall into two classes: modal auxiliaries and primary (or non–modal) auxiliaries. Modal auxiliaries (or modals) always occur in initial position in the verb phrase and are always finite. Primary auxiliaries do not always occur initially nor do they always have finite forms.

Modal auxiliaries

Apart from marginal modals (which will be dealt with below), English has the following central modals:

Present tense		Past tense	
positive	negative	positive	negative
can	can't	could	couldn't
may	mayn't (rare)	might	mightn't
must	mustn't	must	mustn't
shall	shan't	should	shouldn't
will	won't	would	wouldn't

In addition to special contracted negative forms, these modals have non–contracted forms such as *cannot, could not, may not,*etc.

English modals are morphologically defective in that
1. they lack an infinitive, an *–ing* participle and an *–ed* participle. In other words, modals are always finite.

2. their third person singular present tense indicative does not take an *–s* suffix.

3. their past tense formation is highly irregular.

Dare, need, ought to and *used to*

These are called marginal modals, since they do not behave exactly like the other modals mentioned above. *Dare* and *need*, for example, are used both as auxiliaries and as lexical verbs. Their use as auxiliaries is particularly common in negative and interrogative sentences. Cf.:

	DARE	NEED
Lexical verb	: He dares to ask me that He does not dare to ask me that	He needs to be careful He does not need to be careful
Auxiliary	: He daren't ask me that Dare I ask him that?	He needn't be careful Need he be careful?

Ought and *used* are always followed by an infinitive with *to*. In negative and interrogative sentences *used to* may behave as a lexical verb (and require the auxiliary *do*), but it may also behave as an auxiliary. Cf.:

Bob didn't use(d) to go out so much — Bob usedn't to go out so much (rare)

Did Mary use(d) to shop at Harrods? — Used Mary to shop at Harrods? (rare)

Primary auxiliaries

To this subclass belong the verbs *have, be* and *do*. *Have* and *be* have finite as well as non–finite forms (*have* lacks the –*ed* participle), *do* has finite forms only:

	Finite forms	Non–finite forms
Have	: have, has, had	have, having
Be	: am, are, is, was, were	be, being, been
Do	: do, does, did	____

Have

Have is used as an auxiliary to form the present perfect and past perfect tenses. In this function it is followed by the –*ed* participle of another verb:

I have just finished my homework
The boy had never seen a lion before

Have is also used as a lexical verb:

Harry has a beautiful wife
Do your children have cereals for breakfast?

Be

The auxiliary *be* has two functions. It is used as an auxiliary of the progressive when followed by the *–ing* participle of another verb and as an auxiliary of the passive when followed by the *–ed* participle of a transitive (lexical) verb:

Progressive aspect	Passive voice
I'm trying to decipher this	Many children are beaten every day
He was watching TV when I came in	How often were you punished for this?

Like the verb *have*, *be* is also used as a lexical verb:

John is 34 next Wednesday
Our next meeting will be at the Royal Hotel

Do

Do may be used as an auxiliary. It is a semantically empty verb which occurs in negative sentences with *not/n't*, in interrogative sentences (except in *WH–* questions opening with the subject), in declarative sentences opening with a negative adverb, and in emphatic sentences expressing a contrast, an urgent request, etc. Examples:

Negative sentences	: John does not know what he is talking about (Cf. John never knows what he is talking about)
Interrogative sentences	: Do you believe that Louise is French? Who did you write to? (Cf. Who wrote to you?) Why don't you go tomorrow?
Negative adverb in sentence– initial position	: No sooner did he see us than he drove off Hardly did we realize how difficult our task was

Emphatic sentences   You see that he DOES know the
                                                          answer after all
                                      She DID promise to come, didn't she?
                                      DO come in!
                                      I DO hope you're all right

Do does not co–occur with the verb *be*, except in negative and emphatic im-
peratives. Cf.:

*He doesn't be a fool   Don't be a fool!
*Does he be a fool?   Don't be tempted!
*He does be a fool   Don't be saying things like that!
                                      Do be careful!

In negative and interrogative sentences containing the verb *have* (in the mean-
ing of 'possess') usage with respect to the auxiliary *do* varies. Thus we find:

The Joneses don't have any   Do the Joneses have any children?
   children
The Joneses haven't got any   Have the Joneses (got) any
   children   children?

Other meanings of *have* require the construction with auxiliary *do*:

We do not have any trouble   Did you have lamb for dinner?
   with the police
Do you ever have dreams?   Did the children have a good time?

When used as an auxiliary, *do* has finite forms only: *do, does* and *did*. It has the
full range of forms (*do, does, did, doing* and *done*) when used as a lexical verb
and also when functioning as a substitute (or pro–verb):

Lexical verb   Pro–verb

Frank is doing his homework   Who prepared lunch? John did
What have you done to her?   She loves London. So do I
He does his best, I'm sure   He followed me in his car and he will
                                         do it again

Lexical verbs

Since lexical verbs play the most important role in the verb phrase, they are often called 'main verbs' or 'verbs of full meaning'. Auxiliaries, on the other hand, are often referred to as 'helping verbs'; their role is not to express the central notion of the verb phrase, but to signal meanings such as futurity (*shall/will*), possibility (*may*), ability (*can*), aspect (*be* + *–ing* participle) or voice (*be* + *–ed* participle). Consider the following verb phrases, in all of which the verb *punish* is semantically the most important element:

> will punish   may have punished
> has punished   should be punished
> is punishing   has been punished

Before we deal with the classification of lexical verbs, we should point out that English has a small number of verbs and verbal expressions that behave partly like auxiliaries and partly like lexical verbs. They include *fail to, happen to, be to, be going to, have to* and *have got to*. These verbs are sometimes called *semi–auxiliaries*. See also 4.2.4.

  The verb *have to*, for example, behaves like an auxiliary in that it allows the object of the following lexical verb to become the subject of a passive sentence without a change in meaning. Cf.:

> All students have to read this   – This book has to be read by all
>   book   students
> All students should read this   – This book should be read by all
>   book   students

Usage with *have to* varies in negative and interrogative sentences, although the construction with *do* seems to be more common. Cf.:

> You have to go now   –   (a) You don't have to go now
>   (b) You haven't to go now
>
>   (a) Do you have to go now?
>   (b) Have you to go now?

Variants with *have got to* are more frequent (particularly in informal style) than the (b) sentences above:

> You haven't got to go now (=you needn't go now)
> Have you got to go now?

The classification of lexical verbs

Lexical verbs can be classified in several ways. In the first place it is possible to distinguish between verbs that can occur on their own without being followed by other sentence constituents (*intransitive verbs*) and verbs that require some kind of obligatory complementation (*complement verbs*).

Another classification involves the distinction between *one–word verbs* and *multi–word verbs*.

Intransitive verbs and complement verbs

Intransitive verbs do not require complementation, as appears from the following examples:

The baby was crying	I'm starving
The door has stuck	Two soldiers fainted
Why are you laughing?	How many people have died?

Complement verbs can be divided into two sub–classes: *transitive complement verbs* and *copulas*. Transitive complement verbs require different kinds of complementation. We distinguish:

1. monotransitive verbs
2. ditransitive verbs
3. complex transitive verbs

Monotransitive verbs require only a direct object (see 2.5.3.4). Examples:

Who stole my pen?	You frightened me
John likes blondes	How do you heat this room?

Ditransitive verbs are followed by an indirect object (see 2.5.3.5) or a benefactive object (see 2.5.3.6) plus a direct object. Examples:

Mary gave me a bottle of gin	Call me a taxi
Fred told us the news	Randolph found me a bedsitter

Complex transitive verbs are followed by a direct object plus an object attribute (see 2.5.3.8). Examples:

| Shell have appointed her personnel manager | This made her very angry |
| I consider him a genius | Do you drink your chocolate hot? |

Copulas (or 'linking verbs') are followed by a subject attribute (see 2.5.3.7). Examples:

| Her uncle is a professor of Latin | You look tired |
| Jane became a doctor | Peter is growing old |

One–word verbs and multi–word verbs

One–word verbs consist of one lexical item only. A multi–word verb belongs to one of the following classes:

1. verb + adverb (phrasal verb)
2. verb + preposition (prepositional verb)
3. verb + adverb + preposition (phrasal–prepositional verb)
4. verb + noun + preposition idiom

One–word verbs:

| try | raise | die | resist |
| write | like | think | paint |

Multi–word verbs:

| 1. Phrasal verbs: | cover up | put down | switch off |
| | turn in | opt out | send up |

| 2. Prepositional verbs: | call on | agree to | wait for |
| | account for | deal with | |

| 3. Phrasal–prepositional verbs: | keep away from | get on to |
| | come in for | mix up with |

4. Verb + noun + preposition idioms:	catch sight of	lose count of
	set fire to	keep track of
	make eyes at	part company with

Phrasal verbs are either intransitive verbs or complement verbs. Prepositional verbs and phrasal–prepositional verbs are always complement verbs. Examples:

Phrasal verbs: Are you going out?
                                       The chairman decided to step down

                                       That job brings in a lot of money
                                       We had to put off that meeting

Prepositional verbs: The police are looking for the gang
                                       We will deal with him later
                                       Can you account for your behaviour?

Phrasal–prepositional verbs: We will have to check up on those figures
                                       That book has come in for a lot of criticism
                                       All his efforts add up to nothing

Verb + noun + preposition idioms are always monotransitive. They can be looked upon as unanalysable units that function in their entirety as the predicator (see 2.5.3.3) of the sentence:

> We have lost sight of them, I'm afraid
> At last I got hold of Jane's telephone number

Idioms like *set fire to* should be distinguished from idioms like *pay attention to*, which look superficially alike. They differ in that the noun in *set fire to* cannot be preceded by a determiner or an adjective nor can it become the subject of a passive sentence. Cf.:

> The children set fire to the house
> *The children set some fire to the house
> *The children set dangerous fire to the house
> *Fire was set to the house by the children

> We paid no attention to these problems
> We paid considerable attention to these problems
> Considerable attention was paid to these problems

Table 2.3 summarizes the various classes of verbs discussed above. It does not incorporate the one–word/multi–word opposition, since this cuts across other classifications.

		Modal auxiliaries:	*can, may, must, shall, will dare, need, ought to, used to*		
V	Auxiliary verbs				
		Primary auxiliaries:	*have, be, do*		
E	Semi–auxiliaries	*fail to, happen to, be going to, have to...*			
R	L e x i c a l v e r b s	Intransitive verbs:	*cry, sleep, die...*		
		Complement verbs:	Transitive complement verbs:	monotransitive: *steal, prefer...*	
B				ditransitive: *give, tell...*	
S				complex transitive: *appoint, consider...*	
			Copulas	*be, become, look, grow...*	

Table 2.3

2.3.3   Adjectives

Morphologically, many words can be identified as adjectives in English on the basis of typical derivational suffixes like *–able*, *–ish*, *–ic(al)* and *–less*: *drink-able, boyish, economic(al), roofless*. Many adjectives also take the inflectional suffixes *–er* and *–est* to form the comparative and superlative degrees.

Syntactic function

Syntactically, adjectives typically function as heads of adjective phrases. Examples:

> *intelligent*
> very *intelligent*
> much more *intelligent*
> much more *intelligent* than I thought

On the attributive and predicative use of adjective phrases see 2.4.3.3 and 5.2.1.1. On stative/dynamic and gradable/non–gradable adjectives see 5.2.1.3 and 5.2.3.2. Adjectives can be used as noun phrase heads in English. In that case they can refer to persons, nationalities and languages, as well as having abstract reference:

> Do you think the rich can be held responsible for unemployment?
> Henry's Japanese is fluent but he does not speak Russian
> Why are you so interested in the supernatural?

Comparison

Comparison by inflection is characteristic of monosyllabic adjectives, but is also found with many disyllabic adjectives, notably those that are stressed on the second syllable and those ending in *–er, –le, –ow, –some* and *–y*. Examples:

big	– bigger	– biggest
polite	– politer	– politest
clever	– cleverer	– cleverest
simple	– simpler	– simplest
narrow	– narrower	– narrowest
handsome	– handsomer	– handsomest
happy	– happier	– happiest

On spelling changes see Appendix II.

Note that final /ŋ/ in *long, strong* and *young* becomes /ŋg/ before *–er* and *–est*: /lɒŋ/, /lɒŋgə/, /lɒŋgɪst/.

Other disyllabic adjectives as well as adjectives of more than two syllables have periphrastic comparison, which involves the use of *more* and *most*:

prudent	– more prudent	– most prudent
characteristic	– more characteristic	– most characteristic
wonderful	– more wonderful	– most wonderful

A few adjectives have irregular degrees of comparison:

good/well	– better	– best
bad/ill	– worse	– worst

On adjectives that have two forms for the comparative and/or two forms for the superlative see 5.2.3.4.

2.3.4   Adverbs

Although some adverbs (like *fast, hard, early* and *late*) have the same form as the corresponding adjectives, most adverbs in English are morphologically derived from the corresponding adjectives by means of the derivational suffix *–ly*. After bases ending in *–ic* the suffix is *–ally* (except in *publicly*). Examples:

brave	– bravely	incredible	– incredibly	dramatic	– dramatically
frank	– frankly	real	– really	economic	– economically
happy	– happily	respective	– respectively	linguistic	– linguistically

Note that the adverb corresponding to the adjective *good* is *well*:

John's handwriting is good. He writes well for a boy of his age

Another suffix that is characteristic of adverbs is *–wise*, as in *moneywise, lengthwise*.

Many words that belong to the class of adverbs, however, lack characteristic morphological properties. Examples:

always	nevertheless	there	soon
however	perhaps	thus	still
indeed	quite	too	yet

Syntactic function

Syntactically, adverbs typically function as heads of adverb phrases. Examples:

>   *optimistically*
>   very *optimistically*
>   much more *optimistically*
>   much more *optimistically* than was justified

Comparison

A few monosyllabic adverbs (also *early*) form their comparison by adding the suffixes *–er* and *–est*. Other adverbs require periphrastic comparison by means of *more* and *most*. Cf.:

soon	– sooner	– soonest
early	– earlier	– earliest
late	– later	– last
hard	– harder	– hardest
slowly	– more slowly	– most slowly
frequently	– more frequently	– most frequently
carefully	– more carefully	– most carefully

Some adverbs take irregular degrees of comparison:

well	– better	– best
badly	– worse	– worst
far	– farther	– farthest
	– further	– furthest
much	– more	– most
little	– less	– least

2.3.5   Prepositions

Prepositions never change in form and are either simple or complex. Examples:

	Simple			Complex
at	through	in	apart from	on account of
of	with	to	by means of	in spite of

Prepositions usually function as the first constituent in prepositional phrases (which consist of preposition + prepositional complement). Examples:

in London	on the table	in terms of money
for Peter	round the corner	on behalf of the department

Prepositions are also found in constructions in which the complement of the prepositional phrase comes first, the preposition occurring in final position. For example:

This is the book that you were looking for
What is he complaining about?

2.3.6   Conjunctions

Conjunctions, like prepositions, are formally invariable. Again we distinguish two classes: simple and complex conjunctions. Examples:

Simple			Complex	
and	if	unless	as though	in case
but	so	though	as soon as	so that

Conjunctions have a linking function. As such they are either *coordinators* or *subordinators*.

Coordinators

English has four coordinators: *and, but, or* and *for. And, but* and *or* can link sentences as well as phrases, while *for* links sentences only. Examples:

John is a vet and Mary is a chemist
He works hard but I wish he wouldn't
Can you do it or is it too difficult?
I'm staying here, for I don't feel well

English and American literature
a difficult but interesting lecture
male or female students

English also has a number of correlative pairs which serve as coordinators: *both…and*, *not only…but(also)*, *neither…nor* and *either…or*:

Both Neil and Fred live in Sussex
I was neither angry nor relieved

Subordinators

Subordinators (like *that*, *when* and *because*) introduce clauses, that is sentences embedded in other sentences or in phrases. Examples:

We know that your story is not true
I wonder when he arrived
She cannot drive because she has had too much to drink
He had a heart attack the day before he died
The review of my novel was better than I had expected

2.3.7   Articles

English has two articles: the definite article and the indefinite article. Both function as constituents of the noun phrase. They are spelt and pronounced as indicated in table 2.4.

	Spelling	Pronunciation	
		unstressed	stressed
Definite article	*the*	/ðə/ (before consonants) /ðɪ/ (before vowels)	/ði:/
Indefinite article	*a* (before consonants) *an* (before vowels)	/ə/ /ən/	/eɪ/ /æn/

Table 2.4

Examples:

/ðə/	: the book, the unit		/ə/	: a car, a UFO
/ðɪ/	: the English, the hour		/ən/	: an art, an honour
/ðiː/	: *the* medicine for your headache		/eɪ/	: You wrote '*a* girl', not '*the* girl'
			/æn/	: They shot *an* elephant, not *the* elephant

2.3.8 Numerals

This class of words consists of two subclasses: *cardinal numbers* and *ordinal numbers*.

Cardinal numbers	Ordinal numbers
0 nought, zero	
1 one	1st first
2 two	2nd second
3 three	3rd third
4 four	4th fourth
5 five	5th fifth
6 six	6th sixth
7 seven	7th seventh
8 eight	8th eighth
9 nine	9th ninth
10 ten	10th tenth
11 eleven	11th eleventh
12 twelve	12th twelfth
13 thirteen	13th thirteenth
20 twenty	20th twentieth
21 twenty–one	21st twenty–first
100 a hundred one hundred	100th one hundredth
200 two hundred	200th two hundredth
1,000 a thousand one thousand	1,000th one thousandth
1,000,000 a million one million	1,000,000th one millionth

The cardinal numbers *hundred, thousand* and *million* are preceded by *a* or *one*. They can also be pluralized (as can *ten* in *tens of thousands*):

> John has at least a/one hundred books on linguistics
> We saw hundreds of people at the exhibition
> Lundy Island is a mating–ground for tens of thousands of birds

Cardinal and ordinal numbers are mainly used in two functions: they are either constituents of the noun phrase or of the sentence. Examples:

> Susan's got five cats. We've got two
> Jack's first novel was a failure. His second was a success

2.3.9   Pronouns

Pronouns have traditionally been defined as words that are used instead of a noun or a noun phrase. Unfortunately this definition does not apply to all members of this word class. While it holds good for the third person personal pronouns in English (*he, she, it* and *they*), there are other pronouns that do not fit the definition (e.g. *I* and you). In fact pronouns constitute a very heterogeneous class, which, on morphological, syntactic and semantic grounds can be divided into the following subclasses:

Personal pronouns	Relative pronouns
–self pronouns	Interrogative pronouns
Demonstrative pronouns	Reciprocal pronouns
Possessive pronouns	*so* and *one*

Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns are marked for person (1st person, 2nd person and 3rd person). With the exception of *you* they are also marked for number (singular and plural) and (with the exception of *you* and *it*) for case (subjective case and objective case). The 3rd person singular pronouns are also marked for gender (masculine, feminine and neuter).

The subjective case of the personal pronouns is used when they function as the subject of a sentence, the objective case in all other functions. Cf.:

He is our chairman	The club elected him last year
	Our meetings are chaired by him
	That's him
	Who, him?

The 3rd person singular pronouns *he/him* usually refer to nouns with male referents, *she/her* to nouns with female referents (also often to countries, cars and ships). *It* refers to inanimate nouns and to nouns denoting animals (if their sex is not known or considered to be irrelevant). Examples:

Where is John?	– I haven't seen him
Is Mary upstairs?	– No, she has gone out
Your car is a beauty	– Yes, but she won't start
Have you got the address?	– It's on the back of the envelope
Where is your parrot?	– I've returned it to the pet shop

		Singular		Plural	
		subjective case	objective case	subjective case	objective case
1st person		*I*	*me*	*we*	*us*
2nd person		*you*			
3rd person	masc. *he*		*him*	*they*	*them*
	fem. *she*		*her*		
	neuter	*it*			

Table 2.5

–self pronouns

Like personal pronouns, *–self* pronouns are marked for person, number and gender (3rd person singular pronouns only). However, they are not marked for case.

–self pronouns are used in the following ways:

1. reflexively
   Reflexive *–self* pronouns replace coreferential noun phrases. They function as constituents of sentences or as constituents of prepositional phrases:

The prisoner hanged himself
For some time Sybil has not been herself

Why are you so angry with yourself?
She looked at a picture of herself

2. in coordinated phrases
   As the examples show, *–self* pronouns in coordinated phrases occur in variation with personal pronouns:

   Sylvia and myself (Sylvia and I) were the only people present
   This letter concerns our neighbours and ourselves (our neighbours and
       us)

3. after the words *as, but, except*, and *like*
   In this use, too, personal pronouns can be used as well:

   Jane probably earns the same income as yourself (as you)
   This seems to apply to everybody except myself (except me)

4. in apposition (emphatic only)
   –self pronouns are used in apposition to nouns and pronouns, as in:

   I attended the meeting myself
   Margaret herself did not turn up

	Singular	Plural
1st person	*myself*	*ourselves*
2nd person	*yourself*	*yourselves*
3rd person	*himself* (masculine) *herself* (feminine) *itself* (neuter)	*themselves*

Table 2.6

Demonstrative pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns are *this, that, these* and *those*. They are only marked for number, *this* and *that* being singular, *these* and *those* plural. They are either used in the structure of the noun phrase, as in

This book is too expensive	I don't like that man
These examples were not very revealing	Are those children yours?

or they function as constituents of a sentence, as in

This is my wife	That is what he told me
These are much cheaper	Would you prefer those?

Possessive pronouns

The possessive pronouns are marked for pèrson, number (except the 2nd person) and gender (3rd person singular only). We can distinguish two sets of possessive pronouns: those which function only as determiners in the structure of the noun phrase and those which function independently, that is as heads of noun phrases. (See table 2.7).

	Dependent		Independent	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
1st person	*my*	*our*	*mine·*	*ours*
2nd person	*your*		*yours*	
3rd person	masc. *his* fem. *her* neuter *its*	*their*	*his* *hers* —	*theirs*

Table 2.7

Examples:

Dependent use	Independent use
My car was stolen yesterday	This car is mine
Your books are over there	Are these books yours?
Her marriage is very unhappy	Hers is a very unhappy marriage
Our friends live in Manchester	Friends of ours live in Manchester
Their house is in Duke Street	Theirs is not a big house

Relative pronouns

English has three relative pronouns: *who* (*whose, whom*), *which* and *that*. They are used to introduce relative clauses. *Who* and *whom* usually have personal reference, *which* has non–personal reference, *whose* and *that* have both personal and non–personal reference. The only relative pronoun that is marked for case is *who* (genitive case: *whose*, objective case: *whom*). Examples:

> This is the man who(m) the police have charged with murder
> She is the kind of woman who/that might protest
> We have now got a library which/that is really adequate
>
> Mary, who got married last year, now lives in Canada
> Fred's car, which he bought in 1980, is now a write–off
> My father, whose firm went bankrupt, is now retired

The first three sentences contain restrictive relative clauses, the last three contain non–restrictive relative clauses. On the difference see 2.4.2.1.

Note that the relative pronoun *that* can only be used in restrictive relative clauses. Cf.:

> Who is the man that told you this?
> *John, that told me this, should know

The relative pronoun *which* can refer to a preceding sentence, as in:

> Peter won three gold medals, which did not surprise anybody
> He keeps running after her, which is exactly what she wants

On relative *what* and on the possibility of leaving out the relative pronoun see 3.4.5.

Interrogative pronouns

English has three interrogative pronouns: *who* (*whose, whom*), *what* and *which*. *Who* and *whom* can only be used independently, *whose, what* and *which* are also used as determiners in the structure of the noun phrase.

Interrogative pronouns introduce so–called *WH*–questions, both direct questions and indirect questions. Examples:

> Who is President of the United States?

I wonder whose responsibility this is
Who(m) did you send it to?
What is your definition of intelligence?
Do you know which car is cheaper?
The twins resemble each other so much that I don't know which is which

As the last two examples show, *which* is used instead of *who* or *what* when a selection is made from a specified set.

Reciprocal pronouns

The reciprocal pronouns *each other* and *one another* can only be used in sentences with plural or coordinated subjects. Both can occur in the genitive. *One another* is preferred by some speakers when the reference is to more than two. Examples:

Nigel and Rosemary have always been in love with each other
Why are your daughters so jealous of one another?
These two countries have always respected each other's independence

So and *one*

We distinguish three uses of *so*:

1. as a substitute for a *that*–clause
2. in the combination *do so*
3. in the combinations *so do, so…do, so be, so have* and *so* + modal auxiliary

So as a substitute for a *that*–clause

So replaces a *that*–clause after some verbs (also after *afraid*):

Will he pass the exam? –	I think so	He told me so
	I believe so	It seems so
	I hope so	I'm afraid so

So is also found at the beginning of short responses, as in:

Jack is getting married –	So I've heard
	So I understand
	So they say

Do so

This combination, in which *so* is often optional, replaces the predicate and the adverbial (if any). Examples:

> He promised to ring a doctor at once and he did (so)
> The policeman asked them to walk on but they refused to do so
> We begged them to save our lives and they did (so)
> Suddenly he ran out of the room but I don't know why he did (so)

Note that predicates containing a verb of bodily sensation can only be replaced by *do*, not by *do so*. Cf.:

> She felt very sick   – I know she did
>   *I know she did so

So is also often omitted after *do* when the replaced predicate contains a verb of inert perception or cognition, as in:

> I smell coffee   – I do, too
> I wish you would go   – I know you do

So do, so…do, so be, so have and *so* + modal auxiliary

So is used in sentence–initial position followed by a form of *do, be, have* or a modal auxiliary:

> Our children spend a lot of money but so do we
> France is a Republic and so is Italy
> We have a colour TV and so have our neighbours
> I can see that and so can you

In the examples above the same assertion is made about different subjects. This causes inversion in the second half of the sentence. If the two subjects are identical, there is no inversion. Cf.:

> Harry is a bank manager   – So is Peter
>   So he (Harry) is
>
> My parents trust him   – So do I
>   So they (my parents) do

One

We distinguish four uses of *one*:

1. as a pro–form
2. in the meaning 'people in general' (=indefinite *one*)
3. in the meaning 'the sort of person'
4. after the quantifiers *every*, *each* and *any*

One as a pro–form

One can replace an indefinite noun phrase. The corresponding plural is *some*. Examples:

> They have been looking for a flat, but they can't find one
> I have lost my lighter. Never mind, Gerry has got one
> Do you have a cigarette? Yes, I have got some

One can also replace a noun phrase head, provided *one* is preceded and/or followed by a modifying word or phrase. The corresponding plural is *ones*. Examples:

> Do you like my dress? Yes, but I prefer the one you wore last night
> Which hat is yours? The blue one
> Their parties are not so interesting as the ones they gave last year

Note that *one* cannot be used as a substitute for a non–count noun. Cf.:

> I have got red wine and white
> *I have got red wine and white one
>
> She prefers the hard cheese to the soft
> *She prefers the hard cheese to the soft one

In formal style *that* and *those* are preferred to *the one* and *the ones*. *That* is the only possible pro–form when the noun to be replaced is a non–count noun. Examples:

> Is this villa cheaper than that (=the one) in which you stayed last year?
> These apples are much sweeter than those (=the ones) we bought in
>   Devon
> The best wine is that from Burgundy
> His behaviour is much less offensive than that of his brother

The pro–form *one* is not used after a genitive, a cardinal numeral, a superlative and after the word *own*.

> This car is John's   Your solution is the best
> I've only got four   That house is his own

One in the meaning 'people in general'

When used in this meaning the reference of *one* often includes the speaker (or writer) or the addressee:

> One does not want to be too critical of one's colleagues
> One cannot be careful enough

One in the meaning 'the sort of person'

When used in this meaning *one* is usually followed by an infinitive with *to*:

> General Montgomery was not one to be discouraged by adversity
> Miss Simpson was not one to be taken in

One after the quantifiers *every,each* and *any*

When used with the quantifiers *every, each* and *any*, *one* is followed by an *of*–construction. *One* is obligatory after *every*. Examples:

> Every one of his children went to university
> Each (one) of us is responsible
> Any (one) of your friends could have done that

2.3.10   Quantifiers

This word–class consists of words that can be assigned to three sub–classes depending on whether they can function as:

> 1. head of a noun phrase
> 2. head of a noun phrase as well as determiner
> 3. determiner

To the first sub–class belong:

someone	anyone	everyone	no one	none
somebody	anybody	everybody	nobody	
something	anything	everything	nothing	

To the second sub–class belong:

all	either	some
any	neither	few, fewer, fewest
both	enough	little, less, least
each	several	much/many, more, most

To the third sub–class belong *every* and *no*.

Examples:

First sub–class:

> Somebody must have seen him go out
> Anything can happen
> Everyone agrees that Sam is a fool
> Nothing can be farther from the truth
> None of my students has/have read the book

Second sub–class:

> All of my friends have passed the exam
> Both girls were English
> Neither of them can do it
> Enough has been said about this
> Several people were injured
> Jane hasn't got much interest in linguistics

Third sub–class:

> Every member of that club is a millionaire
> He has no time for that sort of thing
> I'm afraid there are no buses on Sundays

Note the difference between *no* and *none*. The latter functions as a substitute for plural count nouns and non–count nouns:

Mary has no friends	She's got none
We have no sugar	We have none

2.3.11   Interjections

Interjections are words that express emotions and feelings such as anger, joy, surprise, pain, etc. Examples:

ah   damn   oh   blimey
blast   gosh   sorry   yippee

Blast, I've forgotten my keys
Oh, I thought this was my coat
Sorry, we are shut

2.4   The phrase

2.4.1   Introduction

The phrase is that unit on the rank scale which normally functions in the structure of sentences and which consists of units of the next lower rank, i.e. words. In this section we discuss five types of phrases: the noun phrase (NP), the verb phrase (VP), the adjective phrase (AdjP), the adverb phrase (AdvP) and the prepositional phrase (PP). For each phrase we describe the elements of which it can consist (its structure) as well as the functions it can have at sentence and phrase level.

   A phrase usually contains a word which may be looked upon as the central element. This word functions as the head of the phrase. Thus a noun phrase is a linguistic structure in which a noun normally functions as head. In the structure of the phrase the words that precede and/or follow the head play a subordinate role. Examples:

                                             Head

Noun phrase   : many expensive cars   with air–conditioning
Adjective phrase : so extremely   proud   of her achievements
Adverb phrase   : very   fluently indeed

The verb phrase differs from the noun, adjective and adverb phrases in two respects. In the first place it contains verbal forms only (in other words it does not contain words from classes other than the class to which its head belongs). Secondly, the verb phrase head is always the last element in the structure of the phrase. Examples:

		Head
Verb phrase:	should have been	punished
	may have been	sleeping

The head of a noun, adjective or adverb phrase can usually be identified as that element which is capable of being substituted for the whole phrase. Cf.:

This country imports many expensive cars with air–conditioning
This country imports cars

Maureen is so extremely proud of her achievements
Maureen is proud

Frank speaks Dutch very fluently indeed
Frank speaks Dutch fluently

The prepositional phrase, exemplified by structures like *on the beach* and *in the twentieth century*, differs from other phrase types in that it lacks a constituent which is capable of being substituted for the whole phrase. In other words, *on the beach* cannot be replaced by either *on* or *the beach* in the same way that *very fluently indeed* can be replaced by its head *fluently*.

2.4.2   The structure of phrases

2.4.2.1   The noun phrase

Noun phrases vary structurally from one–word phrases consisting of a head only to complex structures in which the head is preceded and/or followed by other words. Consider, for example, the following noun phrases, in all of which *books* functions as head:

			Head
			books
	the		books
			books on linguistics
	the		books on linguistics
	the		books on linguistics that I bought in London
	the	expensive	books on linguistics that I bought in London
all	the	expensive	books on linguistics that I bought in London

It is easy to see that the structure of the first noun phrase (*books*) can be made more and more complex by adding words to the left and to the right of the head. In order to be able to describe the structure of the noun phrase it is convenient to distinguish three functions: head, determiner and modifier.

The noun phrase head

The head of a noun phrase is usually realized by a noun or pronoun. Examples:

Jim lives in *London*	*She* doesn't like *me*
Russia is a communist *country*	*Yours* is over there
Books are expensive	*That* is not true
Do your *children* like *music*?	*Who* told *you*?

Noun phrase heads can also be realized, however, by adjectives, by *–ing* and *–ed* participles and by quantifiers and numerals:

the rich	the grotesque	the dying	some
the French	the bizarre	the unknown	neither
the young	the irrational	the unexpected	(all) five

Determiner

The determiner function occurs only in the structure of the noun phrase. It is realized by words that always precede the noun phrase head. Since these words observe a fixed order, they can be divided into three sub–classes: predeterminers, central determiners and postdeterminers. Their members are listed in table 2.8.

D E T E R M I N E R S		
Predeterminers	Central determiners	Postdeterminers
all	definite article	cardinal numbers
both	indefinite article	ordinal numbers
double	demonstrative pronouns	*next, last*
half	possessive pronouns	*few, fewer, fewest*
twice	specifying genitive	*little, less, least*
many (a)	*another*	*many, more, most*
such (a)	*any*	*other*
what (a)	*each*	*own*
	either	*same*
	enough	*such*
	every	
	much	
	neither	
	no	
	some	
	what	
	which	
	whose	

Table 2.8

The following are examples of noun phrase heads preceded by determiners (i.e. words with determiner functions):

all these problems	another book	John's children
both my parents	any other solution	his other job
such a mess	the last question	many universities
twice my salary	those writers	the first two questions

Modifier

We can distinguish three types of modifier: the premodifier (realized by items preceding the head), the postmodifier (realized by items following the head) and the discontinuous modifier (realized by items interrupted by the head).

   The function premodifier can be realized by an adjective phrase, a noun phrase, a classifying genitive or an adverb phrase. Examples:

beautiful girls	children's books
a big Mercedes	cat's eyes
some extremely complicated cases	boy's shoes
his interesting essay	thieves' slang
a disc jockey	the then Prime Minister
her maiden name	the in place to have dinner
girl guides	
war crimes	

Note the difference between *a classifying genitive* and *a specifying genitive*. The latter functions as central determiner and may be separated from the noun phrase head by an adjective. In the example below the phrase *my children's* functions as central determiner. Classifying genitives, on the other hand, immediately precede the noun phrase head and words that precede them do not qualify the genitive but the rest of the noun phrase. Cf.:
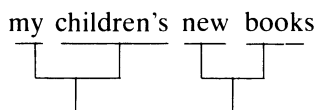
Specifying genitive   Classifying genitive
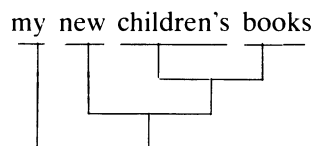
The function postmodifier may be realized by an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, a prepositional phrase or a noun phrase. Examples:

Russia proper	the letters on his desk
nothing new	books from the library
a problem reminiscent of yours	the University of Cambridge
a woman too beautiful to ignore	friends of mine
students as intelligent as Helen	differences of opinion
the week ahead	shoes that size
the year before	a woman your age
the climb up	
the crowd outside	

The function postmodifier can also be realized by clauses, both finite and non–finite. Finite postmodifying clauses comprise three types: relative clauses, ap-

positive clauses and clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions. Relative clauses are introduced by one of the relative pronouns *who* (*whose, whom*), *which* or *that* (on the use of the relative pronouns see 3.4.5). *Who* has personal reference, *which* has non–personal reference, while *that* has both personal and non–personal reference.

There are two types of relative clause: the restrictive relative clause, which is used in order to define the referent of the antecedent, and the non–restrictive relative clause, which has no such function; it provides additional information. The relative pronoun *that* is used in restrictive relative clauses only. The difference between restrictive and non–restrictive relative clauses is illustrated by the following pair of examples (note that a non–restrictive relative clause is preceded by a slight pause indicated in writing by a comma):

> Englishmen who believe in ghosts are keen on Edgar Allan Poe
> Englishmen, who believe in ghosts, are keen on Edgar Allan Poe

The first relative clause is restrictive, since it serves to identify the antecedent. The first sentence does not state that all Englishmen are keen on Poe, but only those who believe in ghosts. In other words, the function of the relative clause here is to set off one subclass of Englishmen (those who believe in ghosts) from another. The relative clause in the second sentence does not have this function. The second sentence claims that all Englishmen are keen on Poe and what the (non–restrictive) relative clause does is provide additional information (viz. that all Englishmen believe in ghosts). Examples:

Restrictive relative clauses:

> This is the lady who/that sold me the tickets
> Jim is a linguist for whom I have the greatest respect
> The man (who(m)/that) you were talking to is my boss
> Since his accident Peter has never been the man (that) he used to be
> The lectures (which/that) he gave on Greek philosophy were very good

The examples show that the relative pronoun in restrictive relative clauses can be left out unless it functions as the subject of the clause or is immediately preceded by a preposition.

Non–restrictive relative clauses:

> Freud was an Austrian psychoanalyst, who died in 1939
> This is Edward Jones, whose wife you have met, I believe

There are 25 students, who all specialize in linguistics

His library contained 5,000 books, which were all damaged by the fire

Appositive clauses are introduced by *that* or by *WH–* words. Examples:

the proposal that he should retire   the question where he was hiding

the claim that the capital had   the problem who should be invited
   been captured

Note that appositive clauses can be preceded by a form of the copula *be*, but that relative clauses cannot. The *be–* insertion test enables us to distinguish between the two types of clause. Cf.:

the proposal that he should retire   – the proposal was that he should
                                                    retire
the proposal that he made   – *the proposal was that he made

In the last example *that* is a relative pronoun which functions as direct object and can be left out. *That* in appositive clauses has no function (except that of linking word) and is non–omissible.

   The third type of finite postmodifying clause is introduced by temporal conjunctions. Examples:

on the day when the war broke out
the years since he died

Non–finite postmodifying clauses can also be divided into three types: infinitive clauses, *–ing* participle clauses and *–ed* participle clauses. Examples:

their wish to emigrate to Australia
an example for you to imitate

children playing in the park
undergraduates wishing to read English

the situation described here
the plans outlined in this leaflet

As we have seen above, in the structure of the noun phrase the head can be preceded by premodifiers and followed by postmodifiers. In addition, it is pos-

sible for the modifying items to partly precede and partly follow the head. In such cases the head interrupts a sequence of items between which there exists a dependency (hence the label discontinuous modifier). Examples:

a difficult child to cope with
bigger cars than we had ever seen
as beautiful a city as Vancouver

2.4.2.2   The verb phrase

The verb phrase consists of verbal forms only. If there is only one verbal form, we speak of a *simple verb phrase*. If there is more than one form the verb phrase is *complex*. Both simple and complex verb phrases can be finite or non–finite. Examples:

Simple verb phrase

finite:	write	non–finite:	(to) write
	writes		writing
	wrote		written

Complex verb phrase

finite:	may write	non–finite:	(to) be writing
	is writing		(to) be written
	had written		(to) have written
	was written		(to) have been writing
	has been writing		having written
	is being written		being written
	should have been writing		having been writing
	must have been being written (rare)		having been written
	etc.		etc.

The examples show that in complex verb phrases the lexical verb always comes last and the modal auxiliary first. The auxiliary *have*, if present, invariably precedes the auxiliary *be*. The maximum number of elements in a phrase is five, but such verb phrases are rare.

   A complex verb phrase may also contain one of the primary auxiliaries *do, be* and *have*. On *do* see 2.3.2. Note that the auxiliary *do* does not as a rule occur with other auxiliaries. *Be* functions as an auxiliary of the progressive or as

an auxiliary of the passive. In general the progressive denotes that the action expressed by the verb is, was or will be going on at a particular moment or during a particular period, while the passive denotes that the action expressed by the verb is undergone rather than performed by the subject of the sentence. The examples show that the verb phrase can express progressive aspect and passive voice at the same time:

Progressive aspect only   : He *is writing* a new novel
                             We *were watching* TV when the bell rang
                             She *will be waiting* for us at six

Passive voice only   : Prisoners *are punished* if they do not comply
                               with the rules
                             Two children *were killed* in that accident
                             These measures *will be introduced* next year

Progressive aspect +   : The house *is being watched* night and day
   passive voice   A new report *was being written* at the time

Apart from the progressive and the passive the finite verb phrase also expresses tense. English has eight tenses in all. The examples show that the present perfect and past perfect tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary *have*, the present future and past future tenses by means of the auxiliaries *will/would* or *shall/should* and the present perfect future and past perfect future tenses by means of a combination of *will/would* or *shall/should* and *have*.

Tense	Form	Examples
1. the present tense	V + Ø or *–s*	Students *enjoy* loud music
2. the past tense	V + *–ed*	Queen Victoria *died* in 1901
3. the present perfect tense	*have/has* + V + *–ed*	Jimmy *has fallen* in love again
4. the past perfect tense	*had* + V + *–ed*	Jimmy said that he *had fallen* in love again
5. the present future tense	*will/shall* + V	Eric *will be* in London next week

6. the past future tense	*would/should* + V	Eric said that he *would be* in London next week
7. the present perfect future tense	*will/shall* + have + V + *–ed*	Next week the Joneses *will have lived* here for ten years
8. the past perfect future tense	*would/should* + have + V + *–ed*	They claimed that they *would have finished* the job by 10

For further information on the tenses, the progressive aspect, the passive voice and mood see chapters 4 and 6.

2.4.2.3 The adjective phrase

The head of an adjective phrase is always realized by an adjective.

Modifier

Apart from the head the structure of an adjective phrase may contain an optional modifier. There are three possibilities: the modifier is realized by words that precede the head (premodifier), by words that follow the head (postmodifier) or by sequences that are interrupted by the head (discontinuous modifier).

The function premodifier is realized by adverb phrases. Examples:

most interesting	exceptionally intelligent
rather good	hardly less dull
horribly cruel	considerably more readable

The function postmodifier may be realized by the adverb *enough*, by a prepositional phrase and by a clause (finite or non–finite). Examples:

wide enough
good enough to pass the exam

friendly to one's neighbours	good at playing tennis
proud of her achievements	surprised at what she said next

My father was glad that he was able to retire early
I am not sure who broke into your office

They were afraid to disturb us
Frank was foolish not to turn up

In adjective phrases containing a discontinuous modifier the head is preceded by *so, as, more, less* or *too* and followed by a clause or phrase. There exists a dependency relation between the words that precede and those that follow the head. Examples:

We were so tired that we went straight to bed
Your daughter is as pretty as your wife
This sounds more attractive than what you said last night
She is too sensible to do such a stupid thing

2.4.2.4   The adverb phrase

The adverb phrase head is always realized by an adverb.

Modifier

The adverb phrase head, like the adjective phrase head, may be modified by three types of (optional) modifiers: a premodifier, a postmodifier or a disconti-nuous modifier.
   The function premodifier is realized by adverb phrases. Examples:

fairly fluently	too soon
incredibly well	extremely late
nearly always	much more frequently

The adverb phrase head can be postmodified by *enough* as well as by a finite *than*–clause. Examples:

easily enough
slowly enough to understand him

This Russian plane flies faster than NATO experts had expected
This car is going to sell better than our competitors predicted

In adverb phrases containing a discontinuous modifier the head is preceded by one of the items *so, as, more, less* or *too* and followed by a clause or phrase. Examples:

> He spoke so bluntly as to put us off
> Mae West died as recently as 1980
> That statement has been formulated less carefully than it should have
> been
> The taxi arrived too late for us to catch the plane

2.4.2.5 The prepositional phrase

In the structure of the prepositional phrase the preposition (simple or complex) is followed by a complement realized by a noun phrase, a *WH*–clause, an *–ing* participle clause or another prepositional phrase. Examples:

> in London   across the river
> after the news   beyond the horizon
>
> She felt hurt because of what you said
> Are you afraid of what might happen?
>
> Several people were sent to prison for not paying their taxes
> Am I right in believing that you would now vote Labour?
>
> He pulled a gun from under his seat
> She beckoned from behind the bar

Note that a prepositional phrase may be preceded by an adverb phrase or by a noun phrase:

> straight over the wall   two days before the meeting
> just after midnight   some time after the accident
> well behind schedule   two miles under water

The two immediate constituents of a prepositional phrase, the preposition and the prepositional complement, do not always immediately follow each other. When the preposition is left on its own at the end of a sentence or clause, it is said to be 'stranded'. On this phenomenon see 5.4.3.

2.4.3   The functions of phrases

All phrases can function as constituents of the sentence. Moreover, with the exception of the verb phrase, they can function in the structure of other phrases. Thus the noun phrase *good food*, the adjective phrase *very pretty*, the adverb phrase *beautifully* and the prepositional phrase *in London* function at sentence level in the first four examples below and at phrase level in the last four examples:

Sentence level:

I love │good food│   She sings │beautifully│

Your daughters are │very pretty│   I met your brother │in London│

Phrase level:

I've just bought │the │good food│ guide│

Jim's solution was │ │beautifully│ simple│

You have │ │very pretty│ daughters│

I remember │your brother │in London│

In this section we deal with the functions of each phrase at both sentence and phrase level. In the structure of the sentence (which is discussed in 2.5) we distinguish the following functions, each of which can be realized by a phrase:

Subject	(SU)	Benefactive object	(BO)
Predicator	(P)	Subject attribute	(SA)
Direct object	(DO)	Object attribute	(OA)
Indirect object	(IO)	Adverbial	(A)

For further information on functions and their realizations see 2.5.3.1.

2.4.3.1   The noun phrase

At sentence level the noun phrase can have any function except P. At phrase level the noun phrase is typically used as an immediate constituent in prepositional phrases. Less typical is its use in the structure of noun phrases, adjective phrases and adverb phrases. Examples:

Sentence level:

SU:	*Our chairman* is very efficient
DO:	We elected *our chairman* last year
IO:	We have given *our chairman* a new job
SA:	Jim will be *our chairman* next year
OA:	When did we elect Jim *our chairman*?

Phrase level:

in PP:	throughout *the country*	in *England*
	without *my permission*	at *Christmas*

in NP:	women *your age*
	an ulcer *the size of an egg*

in AdjP:	*two miles* long	*four inches* wide
in AdvP:	*a day* earlier	*the week* before

Noun phrases like *women your age* must be distinguished from appositional constructions like the following:

Paul Flint, her present husband	Florence, the most beautiful city in Italy
Pollution, a major political issue	Professor Atkins, the Dean of our Faculty

The units in apposition are called *appositives*. If both appositives are noun phrases, they can often be reversed. They have the same reference, the same syntactic function and either of them can be omitted. Cf.:

Paul Flint, her present husband, is a musician
Her present husband, Paul Flint, is a musician
Her present husband is a musician
Paul Flint is a musician

2.4.3.2   The verb phrase

The verb phrase (both finite and non–finite) can only function as P in the structure of the sentence. Examples:

The children *are sleeping*   *Treating* him like that *is* unfair
He *must have been killed* at   *To hold* her responsible *was*
    once   impossible
You *should have copied* that   We *want* Catherine *to marry* him
    letter
I *have been* ill since last week   I *hate* John *doing* such things

On complex sentences like those in the right–hand column, see 2.5.4.2.

2.4.3.3   The adjective phrase

At sentence level adjective phrases are used predicatively, that is as realizations of SA (see 2.5.3.7) or OA (see 2.5.3.8). At phrase level they are normally used attributively, that is as premodifiers in the structure of the noun phrase. Examples:

Sentence level:

SA   OA

My beer is *cold*   I prefer my beer *cold*
John is *rich*   Would you call John *rich*?
My soup is *hot*   I like my soup *hot*

Phrase level:

intelligent students   this *new* policy
a *wonderful* solution   *bright* sunshine
John's *expensive* car   some exceptionally *fine* paintings

In some cases attributive adjectives follow the noun phrase head:

a case *apart*   the people *present*
postmaster *general*   the facts *concerned*
China *proper*   the problems *involved*

Adjectives also follow the noun phrase head when they are further comple-
mented:

> A woman more jealous than John's wife I have never met
> Students willing to take the exam in May can do so
> Plans capable of being realized now should not be delayed

Although the majority of adjectives can be used both attributively and predi-
catively, some adjectives are always attributive, others always predicative. Ex-
amples:

Attributive only	Predicative only
the main cause	afraid
the principal reason	alone
the inner city	alive
a mere child	asleep
his former mistress	awake
sheer stupidity	aware (of)
utter nonsense	ill

2.4.3.4   The adverb phrase

When used as constituents of the sentence, adverb phrases function as realiza-
tions of A. In the structure of phrases they chiefly occur as premodifiers in ad-
jective and adverb phrases. Examples:

Sentence level:

Jim paints *beautifully*	*Surprisingly*, he did not turn up
They had *already* left	*Perhaps* he is right
Have you *ever* been to Paris?	*Frankly*, I do not believe you

Phrase level:

premodifier in AdjP: *exceptionally* brave   *practically* impossible
hardly fair   *increasingly* difficult
extremely nice   *awfully* good

premodifier in AdvP: *quite* well   *equally* simply
rather tolerantly   *too* quickly
most carefully   *very* frequently

As sentence constituents adverb phrases can have a wide range of meanings. First they can express time, place, manner and degree. Examples:

> I am meeting Jane tonight
> My brother does not live here
> She speaks English fluently
> The girls absolutely adore their French teacher

They can also serve to express the speaker's attitude towards what he is saying, as in

> Frankly, I think you're wrong
> Fortunately, no one was injured

Finally, they function as links between one sentence and another:

> My mother did not feel well. So she did not come
> Mary does not work hard. She is very intelligent, though
> Peter is seriously ill. Still, we have not lost all hope
> My brother has a very good income. Besides he is married to a rich wife

2.4.3.5   The prepositional phrase

The prepositional phrase usually realizes the function A when used as a constituent of the sentence. At phrase level it chiefly occurs as a postmodifier in noun phrases and adjective phrases. Examples:

> Sentence level:
>
> > My parents live *in the country*   We met *in a pub*
> > This picture was painted *by Turner*   He is coming *on Sunday*

> Phrase level:
>
> > postmodifier in NP:
> > > whisky *on the rocks*   an introduction *to syntax*
> > > a room *with a view*   differences *of opinion*
> > postmodifier in AdjP:
> > > fond *of chocolate*   green *with envy*
> > > afraid *of being alone*   rich *in minerals*

2.4.3.6   Summary

Sections 2.4.3.1 – 2.4.3.5 show that phrases can function as constituents of the sentence but also (with the exception of the verb phrase) in the structure of other phrases. The various possibilities are given in Table 2.9:

Phrase type	Function	
	In sentence	In other phrases
NP	Subject Direct Object Indirect Object Benefactive Object Subject Attribute Object Attribute Adverbial	complement in PP postmodifier in NP premodifier in AdjP premodifier in AdvP
VP	Predicator	—
AdjP	Subject Attribute Object Attribute	premodifier in NP
AdvP	Adverbial	premodifier in AdjP premodifier in AdvP
PP	Adverbial	postmodifier in NP postmodifier in AdjP

Table 2.9

2.5   The sentence

2.5.1   Introduction

In this section on the sentence we shall first deal with two types of structure: linear structure and hierarchical structure (2.5.2). In 2.5.3 we discuss the various functions that constituents can have in sentences and we specify how each function can be realized. Section 2.5.4 is concerned with two ways of classify-

ing sentences: in terms of their syntactic complexity and in terms of their grammatical form. In 2.5.5 we deal with two syntactic devices that make it possible to avoid repetition: substitution (which makes use of pro–forms) and ellipsis (which enables us to leave out part(s) of a sentence altogether). Finally, in 2.5.6, we discuss four special sentence types: existential sentences, passive sentences, cleft sentences and extraposed sentences.

2.5.2   Linear structure and hierarchical structure

Sentences may be said to have two types of structure: a linear structure and a hierarchical structure. The linear structure of a sentence is simply the order in which the constituents appear. For example, in

(1) My brother saw the manager in his office

the constituent *my* precedes *brother*, which precedes *saw*, etc. The importance of the linear structure of a sentence is illustrated by the fact that changes lead either to a different meaning (as in 1a) or to an ungrammatical sentence (as in 1b):

(1) a.   The manager saw my brother in his office
     b.   *My brother the manager saw in his office

To describe a sentence only in terms of its linear structure is not very revealing, however. Such a description fails to provide information about the hierarchical structure of the sentence, that is about the syntactic relationships between its constituents. Sentence (1) is not only a linearly–ordered string of words (My + brother + saw + the + manager + in + his + office), but also a sequence in which some constituents cohere with others to form larger constituents. It is obvious, for example, that the constituents *my* and *brother* can be grouped together to form the larger constituent *my brother*. Similarly, *the* and *manager* and *his* and *office* together form the larger constituents *the manager* and *his office*. It is intuitively clear that no such coherence exists between *brother* and *saw*, *saw* and *the* or *the manager* and *in*. In other words, we must group the words in sentence (1) as in (1c), not as in (1d), (1e) or (1f):

(1) c.   [My brother] saw [the manager] [in [his office]]
     d.   My [brother saw] [the manager] [in [his office]]
     e.   [My brother] [saw the] manager [in [his office]]
     f.   [My brother] saw [the manager in] [his office]

It is not always obvious how the words of a given sentence are to be grouped together. If the sentence is syntactically ambiguous, for example, the words can be bracketed in as many ways as the sentence in question has meanings. The words of sentence

(2) The teacher of John and Harry may resign

can be bracketed as in (2a) or (2b), depending on whether two people resign (viz. John's teacher and Harry) or only one person resigns (viz. somebody who teaches John and Harry):

(2) a. [[The teacher of John] and [Harry]] may resign
    b. [The teacher [of John and Harry]] may resign

Note that only one way of bracketing is possible in (2c) and (2d), where the ambiguity of (2) is resolved by the forms of the verb *have*:

(2) c. [[The teacher of John] and [Harry]] have resigned
    d. [The teacher [of John and Harry]] has resigned

Let us now return to the bracketing of sentence (1), as given in (1c):

(1) c. [My brother] saw [the manager] [in [his office]]

Although this is hardly controversial, it does not introduce further structure. As figure a shows, the bracketing in (1c) simply implies that sentence (1) can be segmented into four constituents:

fig.a
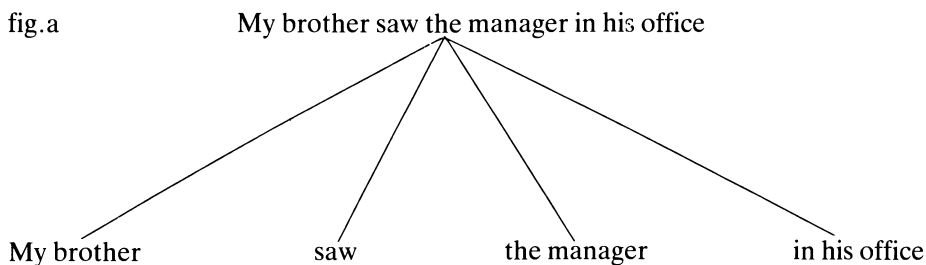
The question is whether any further structuring into larger constituents is possible. This is not immediately obvious. There are at least two possibilities (represented by figures b and c). Figure b divides the sentence into two immediate

constituents (in that case we speak of a binary cut), figure c into three (ternary cut).
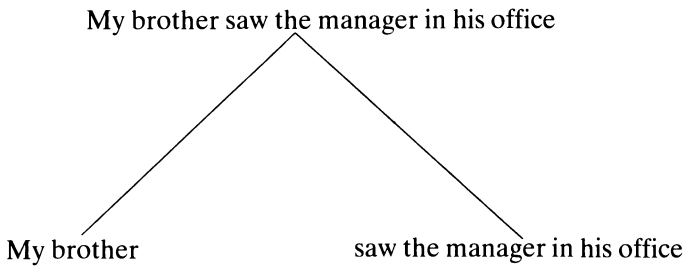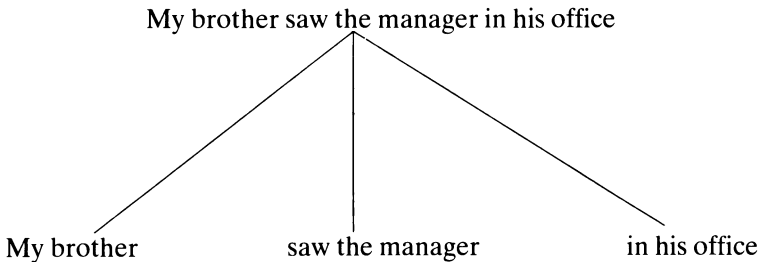
fig. b   My brother saw the manager in his office

My brother   saw the manager in his office

fig. c   My brother saw the manager in his office

My brother   saw the manager   in his office

As figures b and c show, further structure can be introduced in several ways. Thus the constituent *saw* can be treated as part of the larger constituents *saw the manager in his office* (fig.b) or *saw the manager* (fig.c). Similarly, the constituent *in his office* can be treated as part of the larger constituent *saw the manager in his office* (fig. b), but it can also be regarded as a constituent of the sentence (fig. c). Arguments can be given in support of either of these two analyses. What is important is that *saw* and *the manager* should be grouped together. This is the case in figure b as well as in figure c. One argument to prove the cohesion of the constituent *saw the manager* is that it cannot be interrupted (Cf. **My brother saw frequently the manager in his office*). There are two reasons why we prefer the analysis in figure c (which treats *in his office* as a separate constituent). Firstly *in his office* stands in a less close relation to the verb than the constituent *the manager*. This appears from the fact that it can be left out without affecting the grammaticality of what remains (Cf. *My brother saw the manager*). Secondly, the scope of the constituent *in his office* would seem to be the whole of the rest of the sentence rather than the constituent *saw the manager*.

The tree–diagram in figure c shows that sentence (1) can be cut up into three constituents: *my brother, saw the manager* and *in his office*. Since these consti-

tute the first layer of constituents, they are called the immediate constituents of the sentence. Immediate constituents can, in turn, be segmented into their immediate constituents (for example, *my* and *brother*) and this process can be continued until further segmentation has become impossible, that is until the ultimate constituents of the sentence (the words) have been reached (strictly speaking, we could go one step further and claim that the ultimate constituents are not words but morphemes, like *manage* and *–er*. Figure d shows how sentence (1) can be segmented into its ultimate constituents:

fig. d
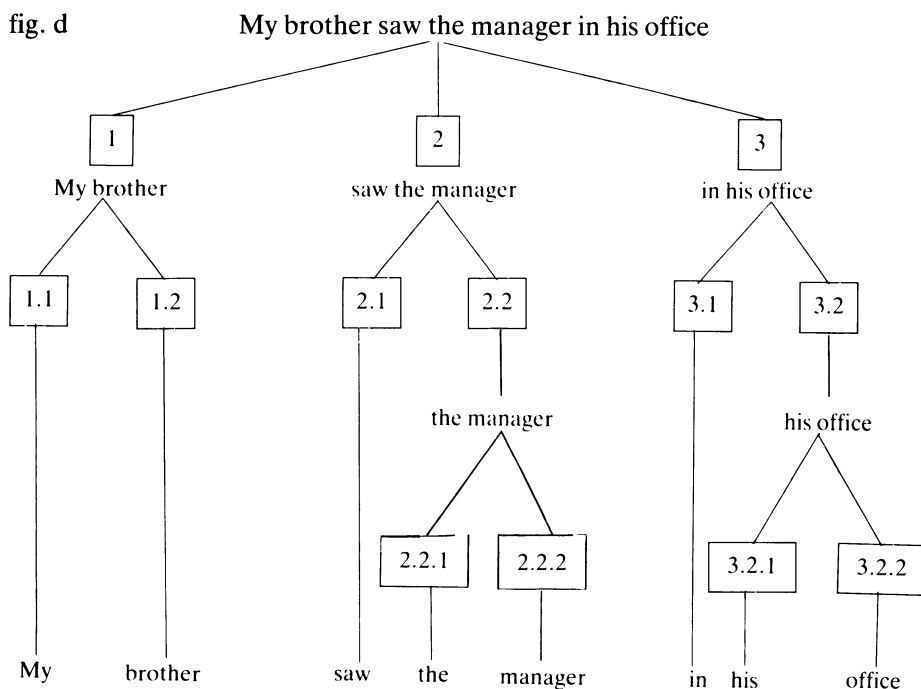
In figure d the nodes have been numbered. In this way the tree–diagram gives information about the number of constituents and about the ways in which they cohere. For example, it shows that 1.1 (*my*) and 1.2 (*brother*) are ultimate constituents and at the same time immediate constituents of the higher–order constituent (*my brother*), which is an immediate constituent of the sentence.

To summarize the preceding discussion, the description of the constituent structure of a sentence should provide answers to at least the following questions:

1. what are the constituents of the sentence?
2. in what order do they appear? (that is, what is the linear structure of the sentence?)
3. how do they cohere? (that is, what is the hierarchical structure of the sentence?)

Two further questions will be dealt with in the next section:

4. what function do the constituents have in the sentence?
5. to what grammatical categories do they belong?

2.5.3   Functions and categories

2.5.3.1   Introduction

Once we have established what the constituents of a sentence are, we must specify what functions these constituents have and to what grammatical categories they belong. Functions may be thought of as slots in the structure of the sentence which can be filled by a certain range of linguistic structures (their realizations). Every language has typical sentence patterns, that is typical configurations of slots. A well–known sentence pattern in English (and many other European languages) is exemplified by three–slot sentences like (3) and (4) below:

(3) Intelligent women – love – older men
(4) Older men – love – intelligent women

In these sentences the noun phrases *intelligent women* and *older men* fill different slots and therefore have different functions.

Functions will be defined below. Before we do so, it is useful to make some preliminary remarks about English sentence structure and to point out some of the difficulties involved in defining sentence functions adequately.

*Obligatory and optional functions*

In English sentences some functions are obligatory (that is, some slots must always be filled), whereas others are optional. It is useful to start with the simplest possible sentence pattern, which consists of two functions: the subject and the predicate. The examples show that both functions are obligatory, that is for a sentence to be grammatical it must contain a subject as well as a predicate. Cf.:

(5) a.   John fainted
   b.   *——— fainted
   c.   *John ———

(6) a.   The taxi arrived
   b.   *——— arrived
   c.   *The taxi ———

Verbs like *faint* and *arrive* belong to the class of intransitive verbs. Intransitive verbs require a subject (SU), but do not require complementation.

In sentences (5a) and (6a) above, the predicates cannot be further segmented into immediate constituents. However, in sentences containing verbs that require complementation segmentation of the predicate is possible. In such sentences the predicate consists of a constituent which has the function 'predicator' (P), and is always realized by a VP, followed by one or more constituents that function as complements (see fig. e).

fig. e
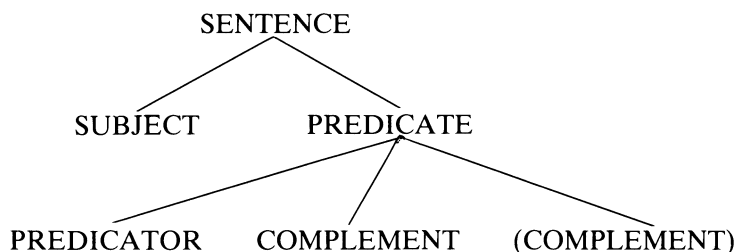
Complements may be defined as constituents which, given a certain verb with a certain meaning, must be present. The type and number of complements depend on the class of verb. Monotransitive verbs are followed by one complement ('direct object'= DO). Ditransitive verbs are followed by two complements: an 'indirect object' (=IO) or a 'benefactive object' (=BO) plus a direct object. Complex transitive verbs also require two complements: DO + OA (= 'object attribute'). Copulas are followed by a constituent functioning as 'subject attribute' (= SA). Examples:

Monotransitive verb:	(7) John adores beautiful women
	(8) Mary loves science fiction
Ditransitive verb:	(9) My boss sent me a postcard
	(10) Can you lend us a fiver?

Complex transitive verb: (11) That remark made me very angry
                                (12) My brother calls his wife Patsy

Copula verb: (13) Your solution is useless
                                (14) The milk has gone sour

Note that all of the above sentences can contain one or more optional constituents. These function as 'adverbial' (= A). Examples:

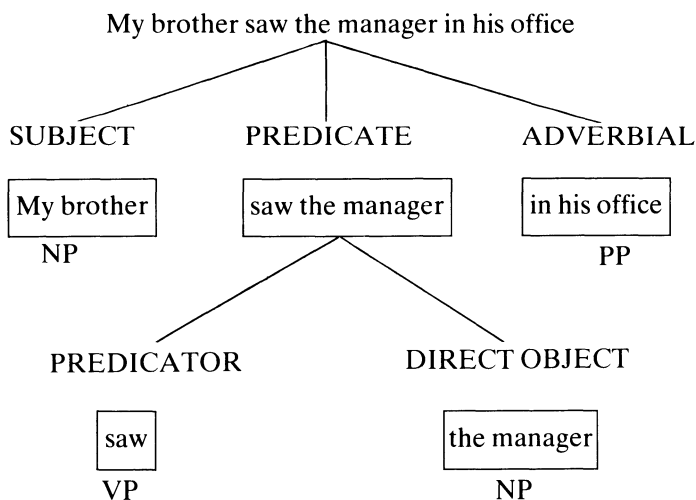(15) My boss sent me a postcard last week
(16) Your solution is useless now

Functional and categorial descriptions

After this brief discussion we are in a position to provide a better tree–diagram for sentence

(1) My brother saw the manager in his office

than the unlabelled tree in figure d. Consider the labelled tree in figure f:

fig. f

The labelled tree–diagram above provides both a function label and a category label for the constituents of sentence (1). Both labels are necessary since a description of a sentence in terms of function labels only or in terms of category labels only is inadequate. To see this, compare sentences (17) and (18) below:

   (17) The manager left the office in a hurry
   (18) The manager left the office in a mess

Both sentences receive the same categorial description:

   NP – VP – NP – PP

It is evident, however, that the prepositional phrases have different functions, as appears from the paraphrases (17a) and (18a):

   (17) a. The manager was in a hurry when he left the office
   (18) a. The office was in a mess when the manager left it

This means that sentences (17) and (18) cannot be adequately described in categorial terms only. In order to be able to differentiate them, it is necessary to combine a categorial description with a functional one.

   On the other hand, there are sentences that receive the same functional description but differ with respect to the categories of which they consist. Cf.:

   (19) John arrived late
   (20) John arrived by train
   (21) John arrived last week

In functional terms sentences (19), (20) and (21) can be described in the same way:

   SU – P – A

In (19) the function 'adverbial' is realized by an adverb phrase (*late*), in (20) by a prepositional phrase (*by train*) and in (21) by a noun phrase (*last week*). This means that, in order to be able to differentiate sentences (19), (20) and (21), we must combine a functional description with a categorial one.

   The functional/categorial description of sentences (17 – 21) looks as follows (the colon means 'is realized by'):

   (17) SU: NP – P: VP – DO: NP – A: PP
   (18) SU: NP – P: VP – DO: NP – OA: PP
   (19) SU: NP – P: VP – A: AdvP
   (20) SU: NP – P: VP – A: PP
   (21) SU: NP – P: VP – A: NP

Function–category relations

It is very important to distinguish between the function of a constituent and its realization (that is the category to which it belongs). As sentences (17 – 21) show, function and realization are independent, since there is no one – to – one relation between them. The only exception to this rule is the function 'predicator', which is always realized by a VP. For all other cases we can say that every function can be realized by more than one category and that every category can realize more than one function.

Defining sentence functions

Before we deal with the various functions that constituents can have in sentences, we should point out that it is very difficult to provide satisfactory definitions. The reason is that questions like 'What is the subject of a sentence?' can be approached in different ways. Unfortunately the different approaches do not always yield the same results.

   One way of defining sentence functions is to ask questions like 'Who performs the action denoted by the verb?' or 'Where (when, how or why) did the action take place?' This approach employs semantic criteria. For example, it assigns the function 'subject' to that constituent which refers to the agent of the action denoted by the verb and the function 'direct object' to that constituent which refers to the person or thing that is affected by the action (the 'victim').

   Another way of defining sentence functions is to take account of criteria such as word order and concord of number. This is a syntactic approach, which assigns the function 'subject' to that constituent which precedes the verb in statements and agrees with the verb in person and number.

   In many sentences these two approaches are not in conflict. In the examples below, the constituents to the left and to the right of the VP can be labelled 'subject' and 'object' respectively on both syntactic and semantic grounds:

   (22) My father – opened – the door
   (23) Brian – has insulted – his boss
   (24) I – am decorating – the bedroom

In many cases, however, the two approaches do conflict. In the following sentences, for instance, the constituents to the left of the VP can all be labelled 'subject' on syntactic grounds. Semantically speaking, however, none of them can be said to refer to the agent of the action denoted by the verb:

(25) My new shirt washes well
(26) His letter reads as if it was dictated
(27) Tickets are now selling at ten pounds
(28) Your figures compare very favourably with mine
(29) This key opens all the doors on this floor
(30) Your pen writes beautifully
(31) Five pounds will buy you a meal in every Italian restaurant

The two approaches are also seen to conflict when we compare active sentences with their passive counterparts. For example, in sentence

(32) The referee sent Bobby Smith off

the referee is both the syntactic and the semantic subject. However, in the passive counterpart of this sentence (which to all intents and purposes has the same meaning), the syntactic and the semantic subject no longer coincide:

(32)a. Bobby Smith was sent off by the referee

In passive sentences like (32 a) the syntactic subject refers to the 'victim' of the action denoted by the verb. In another type of passive sentence in English the syntactic subject plays the semantic role of 'recipient'. Cf.:

(33)   Barclays Bank has offered my brother a job
(33)a. My brother has been offered a job by Barclays Bank

Passive sentences like the following are interesting because in neither type is the syntactic subject (*a woman* and *the man*, respectively) the agent of the action denoted by the following VP:

(34) A woman is believed to have shot the man
(35) The man is believed to have been shot by a woman

In both sentences *a woman* is the semantic subject of the action denoted by the verb *shoot*, while *the man* is the 'victim'. The verb *believe* lacks an explicit semantic subject.

   Finally it should be noted that many sentences lack a semantic subject. This is the case in passive sentences that do not contain a *by*–phrase and also in sentences that contain semantically empty subjects like *it*. Examples:

(36) Dick is to be taken to hospital tomorrow
(37) Many houses have been pulled down in this area

(38) It is raining outside
(39) It is hot in here

Some of the sentences exemplified above show that it is possible to define sentence functions in syntactic and semantic terms at the same time. However, in the majority of cases this is impossible. In what follows we shall therefore use syntactic criteria only, but no attempt will be made to be exhaustive. Only those criteria will be mentioned that cover the largest number of cases. It should also be borne in mind that syntactic criteria cannot always apply simultaneously; the function of a constituent in a sentence can often be established on the basis of one criterion only, the others being inapplicable. The concord criterion, for instance, does not apply to sentences containing a verb that is formally invariable, such as a modal auxiliary.

Sentence functions will be defined in 2.5.3.2 – 2.5.3.9. In each case we will also exemplify the chief ways in which a function can be realized, that is we will specify the range of linguistic structures by which each slot can be filled.

2.5.3.2   Subject

The subject constituent of a sentence is an obligatory constituent which

1. precedes the verb phrase in statements and follows the (first word of the) verb phrase in yes/no questions. Examples:

   My sister studies French   Is *Betty* in London?
   Americans love hamburgers   Would *you* have tried to escape?

2. follows the (first word of the) verb phrase in *WH*–questions or (if the verb phrase is not interrupted) occurs in sentence–initial position in *WH*–questions. Examples:

   Who(m) does *he* teach?   *Who* teaches you?
   Who(m) have *you* told this?   *Who* has told you this?
   When were *you* in Paris?   *What* bothers him?

3. is repeated (or repeated in pronominal form) in tag–questions. Examples:

   Your brother is a bachelor, isn't he?
   She loves you, doesn't she?
   There is no time, is there?

4. determines the form of the (first auxiliary in the) VP. Examples:

> *My brothers* like / do not like fishing
> *My brother* likes / does not like fishing

Realization

The subject of a sentence can be realized by:

1. a noun phrase:

> *John's book on syntax* came out last week
> *Many Englishmen* spend their holidays in France

2. a finite or non–finite clause:

> *That he should apologize* is obvious
> *Why she licks his boots* has never been clear to us

> *To write about freedom of the press* is sometimes dangerous
> *Travelling by air* is expensive these days

> Note that clauses can often occur in sentence–final position (in which case they are said to have been extraposed). In sentences containing extraposed clauses the subject–slot in sentence–initial position is occupied by anticipatory *it*:

> *It* is obvious *that he should apologize*
> *It* was wonderful *sitting on the bank of the river*

3. Unstressed *there* in existential sentences (i.e. sentences of the type: *there* + *be* + indefinite noun phrase):

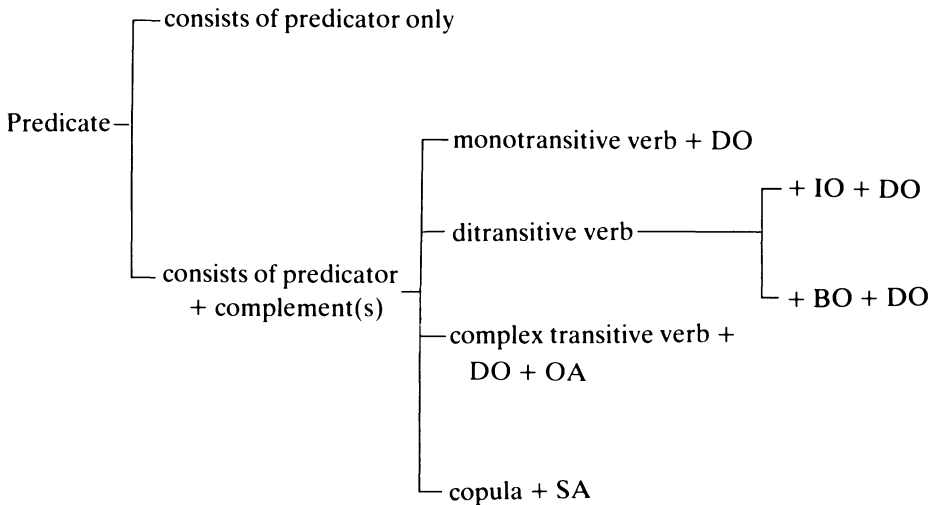> There was a mouse in the cupboard
> There were children on the beach
> There is a pub at the corner, isn't there?

2.5.3.3   *Predicate and predicator*

We have seen above that in the structure of English sentences two slots must always be filled: the subject and the predicate. In other words, the predicate is

one of the two obligatory constituents of the sentence. The form of the predicate of a sentence depends on whether the lexical verb requires complementation or not. If it does not require complementation (i.e. if the lexical verb is intransitive), the predicate is congruent with the predicator. In such sentences the predicate consists of verbal forms only. If the lexical verb requires complementation, the predicate consists of the predicator (which is always realized by a VP), followed by one or two complements. These complements bear special labels such as 'direct object', 'indirect object', etc. The two possibilities are set out below:

Predicate
- consists of predicator only
- consists of predicator + complement(s)
  - monotransitive verb + DO
  - ditransitive verb
    - + IO + DO
    - + BO + DO
  - complex transitive verb + DO + OA
  - copula + SA

Realization

The predicator is always realized by a VP. Examples:

> You *are being* very naughty
> You *should have been sleeping*
> They *might have been killed*
> The girls *will be leaving* tomorrow

Complements can be realized by a wide range of realization–types. They are discussed separately for each complement type.

2.5.3.4   Direct object

From a syntactic point of view the direct object constituent can be characterized as follows:

1. in statements containing only one complement it is an obligatory constituent which, as a rule, immediately follows the VP. The VP must contain a lexical verb other than a copula. The examples show that the VP can contain a one–word as well as a multi–word verb. Examples:

   Our neighbours spend *a lot of money* abroad
   My brother wrote *this letter* two years ago
   Everybody knows *that he is a millionaire*
   The government is looking for *another solution*
   In that year they joined up with *the Socialists*

2. in statements containing two complements, the direct object constituent immediately follows the first complement if the latter can be replaced by a *to*–phrase or a *for*–phrase. Otherwise it immediately follows the VP. Examples:

   We shall give Oscar *another job*
   Dad will buy me *a new bike*

   In these sentences the direct object constituent is the second of the two complements following the VP since the first can be replaced by a *to*–phrase (*to Oscar*) or a *for*–phrase (*for me*), respectively. In the examples below this substitution is impossible. In those cases the direct object constituent is the first of the two complements following the VP, the second complement functioning as object attribute (see 2.5.3.8):

   We elected *him* chairman
   I like *my whisky* neat

   Note the ambiguity of

   They will find him a good chairman

   which either means 'They will find a good chairman for him' or 'They will find that he is a good chairman'.

3. in *WH*–questions the direct object constituent can occur in sentence–initial position. The subject interrupts the verb phrase. If the sentence contains another complement, the latter retains its normal position after the VP. Examples:

Who(m) did they appoint?
What did she give you on your birthday?
Who(m) do they hold responsible?

4. it is that constituent which can often become the subject in the correspond-
   ing passive sentence:

   All students should read *that essay*
   That essay should be read by all students

   Most film critics have recommended *his film*
   His film has been recommended by most film critics

   The manager will deal with *complaints*
   Complaints will be dealt with by the manager

   The burglar must have gone through *my papers*
   My papers must have been gone through by the burglar

The above criteria account for a large number of cases, but by no means for all.
Moreover in many sentences they do not apply simultaneously. For example,
many English sentences with a verb followed by a complement do not allow
passivization, so that the complement fails to meet criterion 4. Examples:

   The Rockefellers have *a lot of money*
   Meat contains *protein*
   Kate resembles *her mother*
   My flat costs *60,000 pounds*
   I married *my wife* when she was 28
   The books in the departmental library number *10,520*
   That job took *5 minutes*
   The children did not behave *themselves*

In sentences like those above, the complement meets only one of the criteria
given. We will nevertheless look upon this type of complement as having the
function direct object.

Realization

The direct object of a sentence can be realized by:

1. a noun phrase:

   When will you return *the books you borrowed from the library*?
   John has made *the same mistakes as you*

2. a finite clause:

   Everybody had forgotten *that Mr. Williams was Welsh*
   The government has announced *that the pound will be devalued again*
   This explains *why her husband had lately been so depressed*

3. a non-finite clause:

   I understood *him to mean that he would be away*
   She would hate *her daughter to marry a foreigner*

   Would you prefer *to arrive before lunch*?
   They promised *to see me at five*
   Most men love *driving fast cars*
   My mother dislikes *being addressed as 'love'*

   The French strongly resent *the English calling them frogs*
   Can you imagine *the Joneses inviting us to dinner*?

   Suddenly we heard *some shots fired outside*
   My mother had *her eyes tested*

The examples show that the non–finite clause contains an infinitive, an *–ing* participle or an *–ed* participle and that it can have a subject of its own.

In sentences containing an extraposed clause, the direct object slot immediately behind the VP is occupied by anticipatory *it*:

   I consider *it* unlikely *that he will get his Ph.D.*
   Would you consider *it* sensible *to send Jane to Cambridge*?

2.5.3.5   Indirect object

The indirect object constituent can be defined as follows:

1. it is usually obligatory and immediately follows the VP in statements, except

when the two complements following the VP are both pronominal. In that case there are two possible word orders. Cf.:

> I will give *Jack* my pen
> I will give *him* it
> I will give it *him*

2. in statements it is always followed by a second complement

3. in *WH*–questions the indirect object constituent can occur in sentence–initial position. The direct object retains its position after the VP. The preposition *to* may precede the indirect object, but usually occurs after the direct object. Examples:

> *To whom* did you give the money?
> *Who(m)* did you give the money to?
>
> *To whom* did your secretary send these papers?
> *Who(m)* did your secretary send these papers to?

4. the indirect object constituent can usually be replaced by a *to*–phrase. Examples:

> He told *everybody* the story
> He told the story to everybody
>
> George gave *the girl* roses
> George gave roses to the girl

5. the indirect object constituent can usually become the subject of the corresponding passive sentence. Examples:

> Have they paid *him* the rent?
> Has he been paid the rent?
>
> They have offered *her* a new job
> She has been offered a new job

Note that quite a few verbs in English are followed by two complements the first of which does not allow substitution by a *to*–phrase. Examples:

Please, forgive *me* that remark
I don't know why she bears *me* a grudge
That will cost *him* his life
I envy *you* that beautiful car
Ask *her* where she lives

Realization

The indirect object of a sentence is usually realized by a noun phrase. Examples:

Will you pass *me* the butter, please?
Dad would not lend *my brother* anything
My aunt has left *me* her library

2.5.3.6   Benefactive object

The benefactive object meets the first three criteria of the indirect object mentioned in 2.5.3.5, but differs from the indirect object with respect to criteria 4 and 5:

1. the benefactive object constituent can usually be replaced by a *for*–phrase. Examples:

   Henry ordered *himself* a double whisky
   Henry ordered a double whisky for himself

   Some parents will buy *their children* expensive presents
   Some parents will buy expensive presents for their children

2. the benefactive object constituent cannot as a rule become the subject of the corresponding passive sentence:

   I will get *you* another copy
   *You will be got another copy

Realization

Like the indirect object, the benefactive object of a sentence is usually realized by a noun phrase. Examples:

Jack has bought *his son* a ticket for the Cup Final
The bank refused to cash *me* this cheque
Call *me* a taxi, please

2.5.3.7   Subject attribute

In statements the subject attribute constituent is an obligatory constituent fol-
lowing the VP. It is not accompanied by another complement. In *WH*–ques-
tions the subject attribute constituent can occur in sentence–initial position. Se-
mantically speaking, this constituent may be said to refer to a quality which is
assigned to the subject of a sentence. A subject attribute occurs in three types
of sentences:

1. those containing a copula verb. Examples:

    When did Margaret Thatcher become *Prime Minister*?
    What is her husband?
    After 5 minutes two people in the audience had fallen *asleep*
    She has been feeling *very low* for some time
    The lamb tastes *delicious*

2. those containing an intransitive verb. Examples:

    Both my sisters married *young*
    John died *a millionaire*
    They parted *good friends*

    Note that these sentences allow paraphrases with *be*:

    Both my sisters were young when they married

3. those containing a passive VP. In this type of sentence the subject attribute
    constituent corresponds to the object attribute constituent in the corre-
    sponding active sentence (see 2.5.3.8). Examples:

    A woman was elected *Fellow of All Souls' College* a few years ago
    Do you know why policemen were called *peelers*?
    You hair has been cut *very short*

Realization

The subject attribute of a sentence can be realized by:

1. a noun phrase:

> This remains *a controversial issue in linguistics*
> He had been *a Conservative* for years
> When was Randolph promoted *captain?*

2. an adjective phrase:

> The children kept *very quiet*
> That coffee smells *good*
> All my dreams have come *true*

3. a prepositional phrase:

> After 2 years in prison he is *at liberty*
> That question is *of no importance*
> My telephone is *out of order*

4. a finite or non–finite clause:

> His claim is *that second language learning is like first language learning*
> What they seem to be saying is *that this is rubbish*
> The question is *whether he has any intention of marrying her*

> Our first task will be *to design a new curriculum*
> All you have to do is *(to) consult a dictionary*
> To tell him that would be *adding insult to injury*

2.5.3.8   Object attribute

In statements the object attribute constituent is an obligatory constituent, always accompanied by another complement which precedes it. In *WH*–questions the object attribute constituent can occur in sentence–initial position. The direct object retains its position after the VP. From a semantic point of view the relation between the first complement (the direct object) and the object attribute is the same as the relation holding between the subject and the subject attribute (see 2.5.3.7). Cf.:

I always drink my beer *cold*
My beer is always cold when I drink it

I bought that record–player *cheap*
That record–player was cheap when I bought it

Realization

The object attribute can be realized by:

1. a noun phrase:

    The arms race has made a new war *a terrifying prospect*
    What colour has she dyed her hair?
    I find Charlotte *a very sensible girl*

2. an adjective phrase:

    I have always called his plans *foolish*
    That sort of thing drives me *mad*
    The children washed their faces *clean*

3. a prepositional phrase:

    The news of the team's victory sent the town *into great excitement*
    The estate agents have set the price *at 37,000 pounds*
    His success had turned him *into a conceited ass*

4. a finite clause:

    A new editor could make this newspaper *what it was 10 years ago*
    Call her *what you like*, she is nice
    I'm afraid you will have to take us *as you find us*

5. an *–ing* clause:

    I don't call that *doing one's best*

2.5.3.9   Adverbial

This function is usually realized by optional constituents which can often occupy more than one position in the sentence. Cf.:

> *Suddenly* the bomb went off
> The bomb *suddenly* went off
> The bomb went off *suddenly*

Note that it is possible for a sentence to contain more than one constituent that functions as adverbial:

> Simon will *probably* resign *in May*
> *Last year* our neighbours moved *to Sussex*
> The police *carefully* entered the flat *from the back*

As the above examples show, constituents that function as adverbial can be characterized from a semantic point of view as providing information about time, place, manner, etc.

   Although the function adverbial is usually realized by optional constituents, there are sentences that contain obligatory adverbials. These usually denote place or time, as in:

> You can put your clothes *on the bed*
> The guests are *in the garden*
> My parents live *in San Francisco*
> Our next meeting is *in May*

Realization

The function adverbial can be realized by:

1. an adverb phrase:

> *Slowly* the car turned round the bend
> She is *desperately* trying to persuade him
> I like him *very much*

2. a prepositional phrase:

> *To our relief* the train had not yet come in

The children ate their meal *in silence*
By the way, what are you doing tonight?

3. a noun phrase:

One day I will tell you
She does not trust him *a bit*
John paints *the way you do*

4. a finite clause:

If this story is true, he will have to apologize
I will come with you, *although I am rather tired*
Before you leave, let me give you the address

5. a non–finite clause:

He stood there for a moment, *expecting something awful to happen*
Weather permitting, the boat sails at 11 p.m.
Seen in this light, the play is not a success
This task completed, we felt we had deserved a rest
To speak frankly, I am not very brave

6. a verbless clause:

A beautiful woman, she always had many lovers
The son of a miner, D.H. Lawrence was born in 1885

2.5.4   The classification of sentences

2.5.4.1   Introduction

Sentences can be classified in terms of their syntactic complexity (2.5.4.2) as well as in terms of their grammatical form (2.5.4.3). The first classification comprises three sub–classes: simple sentences, complex sentences and compound sentences. The second classification consists of four sub–classes: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences. Declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences can also be negative. Negative sentences are dealt with separately in 2.5.4.4.

2.5.4.2 Syntactic complexity: simple, complex and compound sentences

This classification takes account of two criteria. The first criterion is subordination (or embedding). Sentences which do not contain an embedded sentence (or clause) as realization of one or more of their functions are called *simple*. Sentences which contain one or more embedded clauses are called *complex*. In each pair of examples the italicized parts have the same function, the difference being that in the (b) sentences this function is realized by a clause, whereas in the (a) sentences it is realized by a noun phrase.

> a. *John's intelligence* is obvious
> b. *That John is intelligent* is obvious
>
> a. *Such measures* are risky
> b. *To take such measures* is risky
>
> a. I know *your feelings*
> b. I know *how you feel*
>
> a. *Walter's absence* shows *his lack of interest*
> b. *That Walter is absent* shows *that he is not interested*
>
> a. My friends know *my plans*
> b. My friends know *that I have told my boss that I am going to resign*

The last two examples show that it is possible for a complex sentence to contain more than one clause and that a clause can contain another (more deeply embedded) clause. Clauses containing other clauses are called matrix clauses or superordinate clauses.

The examples above show that clauses can be finite or non–finite. They can also be verbless, as in the two sentences below:

> *The son of rich parents*, he was sent to Eton
> *Always a traditionalist*, he never approved of new ideas

A simple sentence has been defined above as a sentence in which none of the functions is realized by an embedded clause. This means that sentences containing clauses that are embedded in phrases should be regarded as simple rather than complex. Consider, for instance, the *that*–clauses in the sentences below:

The news *that his father had died* came as a shock
Have you seen the film *that is running at the Odeon?*
The judge was satisfied *that she was telling the truth*

The reason why these sentences should be regarded as simple rather than com-
plex is that the *that*–clauses are postmodifiers in noun phrase and adjective
phrase structure. They do not have a function of their own in the sentence.

The second criterion that is used in this classification is coordination. Sentences
involving coordination are called *compound*. The examples below show that
compound sentences consist of strings of two or more simple sentences, two or
more complex sentences or combinations of these, joined by one of the coordi-
nators *and, or, for* or *but*:

The population of Amsterdam has decreased but the housing problem is
   still very bad
I think that Peter does not have a car, for he told me that he commutes to
   London every day
Martin is a nice chap and I gather that he makes friends very easily

2.5.4.3   Grammatical form: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences

A classification of sentences that is based on their grammatical form takes ac-
count of two criteria:

1. what elements are present in the sentence?
2. what is the order in which these elements appear?

We distinguish four types: declarative sentences, interrogative sentences, im-
perative sentences and exclamatory sentences.

Declarative sentences

Declarative sentences contain a subject, which normally precedes the verb.
Examples:

The man you've just been talking to was our Ambassador in New York
Shakespeare was born in Stratford–upon–Avon
Joseph Heller wrote *Catch–22*

Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences contain a subject and open with a verb or a *WH*–word. Those that have a verb in initial position are called yes–no questions. Yes–no questions open with an auxiliary, a form of the lexical verbs *have* or *be*, or one of the forms *do, does* or *did*.Examples:

> Should I have waited for her?
> Has she any children?
> Is James in Edinburgh?
> Do you know her?

Yes–no questions expect an answer which affirms or denies what is implied in the question ('James is in Edinburgh. Is this true or not?'– Answer: Yes/No).

Interrogative sentences that have a *WH*–word (*who, what, which, when*, etc., but also *how*) in sentence–initial position are called *WH*–questions. The examples below show that, if the *WH*–word is not the subject or part of the subject noun phrase, one of the forms *do, does* or *did* is required, unless the sentence contains an auxiliary. Cf.:

Who told you this?	– Who(m) did you tell this? Who(m) have you told this?
Which girl fell in love with you?	– Which girl did you fall in love with?
How many girls know him?	– How many girls does he know? How many girls had he known?

WH–questions expect an answer which provides information about that part of the question which the speaker inquires about ('Somebody told you this. I want to know who'– Answer: John/My neighbour, etc.).

A third type of question, the so–called tag–question, is treated here, although it does not belong to the category of interrogative sentences from a structural point of view. The examples below show that a tag–question follows a statement on which it is structurally dependent in several respects:

1. if the statement is positive, the tag is negative (and vice versa)
2. the subject of the statement is repeated in pronominal form in the tag
3. the verb of the statement is repeated in the tag if it is an auxiliary or a form of the lexical verbs *have* or *be*; otherwise the verb is 'picked up' by the auxiliary *do*.

Examples:

    He can't speak Russian, can he?
    This book is not difficult, is it?
    You have been to India, haven't you?
    Bob teaches history, doesn't he?

The main function of tag–questions in communication is to invite the addressee to express agreement or disagreement with what the speaker asserts.

Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences contain a verb form that is identical with the base. As a rule imperative sentences do not contain a subject. If a subject is present, it is usually *you*. Examples:

    Get me a taxi
    Take this upstairs, please
    (You) come with me
    Don't (you) do that again

Exclamatory sentences

Exclamatory sentences open with *how* or *what*. The subject precedes the verb. Examples:

    How incredible this sounds!
    How I hated him!
    What a beautiful job he had made of it!
    What a crashing bore your friend is!

Each of the four sentence types discussed above has a typical function in communication. Thus declarative sentences are normally used to make statements, interrogative sentences to ask questions, imperative sentences to express orders or requests and exclamatory sentences to make exclamations. It is important, however, to bear in mind that the grammatical form of a sentence does not necessarily bear a one–to–one relation to its 'value' in communication. Note, for example, that declarative and interrogative sentences can be used to express orders or requests, and that interrogative sentences can be used to make exclamations:

Your bicycle is still outside, Peter
Are those your shoes in front of the telly?
Isn't that wonderful!
Are you kidding!

2.5.4.4 Negative sentences

Declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences can be made negative by the addition of the particle *not* (or *–n't*). A comparison with their positive counterparts shows that negative declarative and negative interrogative sentences require one of the forms *do, does* or *did*, if they do not contain an auxiliary or a form of the lexical verbs *have* or *be*. Negative imperative sentences always require the auxiliary *do*, even when they contain the lexical verb *be*. Examples:

Declarative sentences:

positive	negative
You should have told me	– You shouldn't have told me
He lectures every day	– He doesn't lecture every day
She is a professor	– She isn't a professor

Interrogative sentences:

positive	negative
Did you recognize him?	– Didn't you recognize him?
Are you interested in this?	– Aren't you interested in this?
Who knows the answer?	– Who doesn't know the answer?

Imperative sentences:

positive	negative
Ring him up tomorrow	– Don't ring him up tomorrow
Be a fool (if you must)	– Don't be a fool

Negative sentences also differ from their positive counterparts in requiring so–called non–assertive forms such as *any, anything, anywhere, yet* and *either*. These also typically occur in interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses. Some non–assertive forms are exemplified in the (b) sentences below:

a. We have some friends in Chicago
b. We don't have any friends in Chicago

a. You should have said something
b. You shouldn't have said anything

a. I saw your coat somewhere
b. I didn't see your coat anywhere

a. He has finished already
b. He hasn't finished yet

a. My brother was there too
b. My brother wasn't there either

2.5.5   Substitution and ellipsis

2.5.5.1   Introduction

In 2.5.4.2 we saw that two or more sentences can be combined in either of two ways: by means of subordination (or embedding) or by means of coordination. The resulting sentences are complex and compound, respectively. In order to avoid repetition both complex and compound sentences can be condensed by means of two syntactic devices: substitution and ellipsis. These also operate across sentences.

2.5.5.2   Substitution

Substitution is a process whereby one or more constituents of a sentence are replaced by so–called pro–forms. Pro–forms can be substituted for clauses, noun phrases, adjective phrases and verb phrases. In the last case they may either replace the verb phrase only or the verb phrase together with other sentence elements. The examples illustrate only some of the many possibilities.

Pro–forms and clauses

I hope *that he will be arrested*, although I doubt *it*
To appoint him is a bit of a risk, but they don't seem to think *so*
Mary has failed her driving–test, but *that* doesn't surprise me

Pro–forms and noun phrases

> *Many students* like *linguistics* but *they* don't find *it* easy
> *Ian* has a great deal of admiration for *himself*

Pro–forms and adjective phrases

> Mary is *most cooperative* but *so* is Lucy
> I am told that he is *eager to leave*. *So* he is
> The accused claimed that he was *innocent*, but *that* he was definitely not

Pro–forms and verb phrases (plus other sentence elements)

> Gerry *drinks* and his brother *does*, too
> The police *believe that story*. I know they *do*
> Oscar *speaks Arabic*, and *so does* Lolita
> I *met Andrew for the first time in Cairo*. *So did* Fred

2.5.5.3   Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a syntactic device which makes it possible, for reasons of economy, to leave out part of a sentence, provided it contains information that has already been given in the context. The examples below show that ellipsis involves not only single sentence elements (such as the subject, the predicator or a complement), but also combinations like the subject and the predicator or the predicator and a complement. It is also possible to ellipt part of the predicator. In the examples the ellipted part appears in round brackets.

> The miners are discontented and (the miners) want to go on strike
> Peter is leaving tonight and Joan (is leaving) tomorrow
> We import (tea) and they sell tea
> Jimmy lived in Edinburgh last year and (Jimmy lived) in Liverpool the
> ⋅ year before
> Peter studies English at Oxford and Virginia (studies English) at Durham
> They claimed they had been working but they had not (been working)
> He was not punished, but he should have been (punished)

2.5.6   Some special sentence types

2.5.6.1   *Introduction*

This section is concerned with four special sentence types that have hitherto received little or no attention in this book. In 2.5.6.2 and 2.5.6.3 we deal with existential sentences and with passive sentences, respectively. In 2.5.6.4 and 2.5.6.5 we illustrate two syntactic devices that are used in English in order to focus attention on a particular sentence constituent: clefting and extraposition.

2.5.6.2   *Existential sentences*

Existential sentences refer to the existence of some entity. They are introduced by a dummy subject, called 'existential' *there*, and usually have the following pattern:

> *There* + (auxiliary) + *be* + indefinite NP(...)

Examples:

> There is a mouse in Dad's study
> There were children in the park
> There should be a solution to this problem
> There can be no doubt about it

Existential *there* can be followed by intransitive verbs other than *be*:

> There will come a time when he will regret this
> There exists another copy of this letter
> Since the war there have emerged many new nations
> There lay a dead cat in the garden

That *there* is the grammatical subject of the sentence appears from its behaviour in yes–no questions and tag–questions:

> Is there a mouse in Dad's study?
> There is a mouse in Dad's study, isn't there?

Existential *there* is unstressed and should not be confused with the place adverb

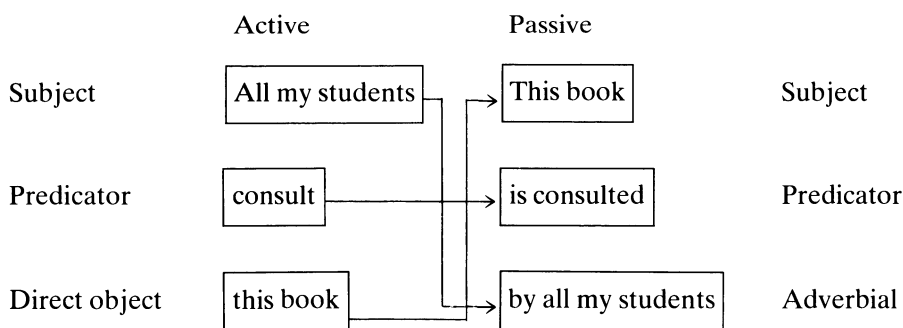*there*. The latter is pronounced /ðeə/ and can occur in sentences with a definite NP. Cf.:

> There is a bus at 10
> There is the bus

2.5.6.3 Passive sentences

A passive sentence is a sentence in which the predicator is realized by a passive verb phrase, that is a verb phrase consisting of the auxiliary *be* (optionally preceded by other auxiliaries), followed by the *–ed* participle of a transitive verb. The subject of a passive sentence is usually the 'victim' or 'recipient' of the action denoted by the lexical verb in the verb phrase, the agent being denoted by the *by*–phrase. Examples:

> The dog was shot by the police
> You may be invited by him
> He must have been admired by everybody

The formation of passive sentences can best be illustrated by comparing them with their active counterparts. The diagram below shows that the predicator of the active sentence is passivized by adding the auxiliary *be* and giving the lexical verb its *–ed* participle form. The direct object of the active sentence is moved to sentence–initial position in the passive sentence, while the subject is shifted to sentence–final position and is preceded by the preposition *by*.

	Active		Passive
Subject	All my students	→ This book	Subject
Predicator	consult	→ is consulted	Predicator
Direct object	this book	→ by all my students	Adverbial

The agentive *by*–phrase is often omitted, particularly in cases where it is either impossible or unnecessary to specify the agent of the action:

The house had not been insured
They should have been paid more
Ten soldiers were killed in action
All the chocolates have been eaten

In general it is possible to convert an active sentence into the passive if it contains an object. The object of the active sentence can be a direct object, an indirect object or a prepositional object:

    a. Everybody admired her courage
    b. Her courage was admired by everybody

    a. My uncle gave me this ring
    b. I was given this ring by my uncle

    a. My neighbour is looking after the children
    b. The children are being looked after by my neighbour

Active sentences that contain two objects often have two passive counterparts. Cf.:

    My uncle gave me this ring   – I was given this ring by my uncle
                                          This ring was given (to) me by my
                                          uncle

English also has passive sentences of the type exemplified below, in which the predicator is followed by a non–finite clause without an explicit subject. The grammatical subject of the sentence is at the same time the logical subject of the non–finite clause. Thus, in

    John was made to wait for two hours

the grammatical subject *John* is also the agent of the activity denoted by the verb in the non–finite clause *to wait for two hours*.

Additional examples:

    The prisoner was supposed to have committed suicide
    We have been told to hand in the essay this week
    Charles is said to have married Veronica in Paris

The burglar was seen entering the house late at night
Sally is not allowed to go out with me
The man was known to be a cheat

2.5.6.4   Cleft sentences

Cleft sentences involve constructions which 'cleave' a single sentence into two parts. Their function is to give prominence to a particular sentence constituent. We distinguish two types: *it*–type cleft sentences and *WH*–type cleft sentences.

   It–type cleft sentences have the pattern

$$It + be + \text{prominent constituent} + \begin{cases} who\text{--clause} \\ that\text{--clause} \end{cases}$$

Examples (b–e) show that most constituents in (a) can be given prominence in this way:

   a. Longman published this book in London in 1980
   b. It was Longman who published this book in London in 1980
   c. It was this book that Longman published in London in 1980
   d. It was in London that Longman published this book in 1980
   e. It was in 1980 that Longman published this book in London

Note that it is normally impossible for *it*–type cleft sentences to focus on the verb or on the subject attribute. Cf.:

   a.   He wrote this essay last year
   b. *It was wrote that he this essay last year

   a.   Peter is a writer
   b. *It is a writer that Peter is

If the emphasized constituent is a personal pronoun, it can be either in the subjective case (in formal style) or in the objective case:

   a. We are to blame
   b. It is we (us) who are to blame

WH–type cleft sentences contain a form of the verb *be*, preceded or followed by a *WH*–clause. Like *it*–type cleft sentences, they are used to highlight a particular element of the sentence for contrast. There are two patterns:

    1. *WH*–clause + *be* + prominent constituent
    2. Prominent constituent + *be* + *WH*–clause

Examples:

    a. You need a good friend
    b. What you need is a good friend
    c. A good friend is what you need

    a. He wants to join us
    b. What he wants is to join us
    c. To join us is what he wants

Unlike *it*–type cleft sentences, *WH*–type cleft sentences can be used to give prominence to the verb as well as to the subject attribute. Cf.:

    a. Jim sold his car
    b. *It was sold that Jim his car
    c. What Jim did was (to) sell his car

    a. He is a fool
    b. *It is a fool that he is
    c. What he is is a fool

The *WH*–clause in *WH*–type cleft sentences is normally introduced by *what*. *Who*–clauses are usually impossible. Instead we can use the constructions exemplified in (e) and (f):

    a. Peter teaches linguistics
    b. What Peter teaches is linguistics
    c. Linguistics is what Peter teaches
    d. *Who teaches linguistics is Peter
    e. The one/person who teaches linguistics is Peter
    f. It is Peter who teaches linguistics

2.5.6.5   Extraposed sentences

Extraposition is a syntactic device which moves a clause to sentence–final position, replacing it by the anticipatory pronoun *it*. The clause may be finite or non–finite. Upon the whole the construction with anticipatory *it* is more common than the construction with the clause in sentence–initial position. The latter is chiefly used when special emphasis is required. Examples:

> a. That she has changed her mind is a pity
> b. It is a pity that she has changed her mind
>
> a. That he will not turn up is very likely
> b. It is very likely that he will not turn up
>
> a. To make Peter chairman would be a mistake
> b. It would be a mistake to make Peter chairman

The examples above illustrate the extraposition of clausal subjects.

   Extraposed clausal objects occur in sentences of the type Subject–Predicator–anticipatory *it*–Object attribute–extraposed clause. Examples:

> I consider it my duty to help her
> We found it difficult to find a solution
> She took it for granted that I would accept
> He made it clear that he was going to resign

Note that with some verbs extraposition is obligatory. Cf.:

> a. *That he is honest seems
> b. It seems that he is honest
>
> a. *That I was present so happened
> b. It so happened that I was present

Extraposition is also obligatory in passive sentences like the following:

> a. *That he will not be convicted is hoped
> b. It is hoped that he will not be convicted
>
> a. *That the President had died was said
> b. It was said that the President had died

PART TWO

THE STRUCTURES OF ENGLISH AND DUTCH COMPARED

3: NOUNS, NOUN PHRASES AND PRONOUNS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with three interrelated topics. Section 3.2 is concerned with the classification of nouns in English and Dutch and with the ways in which the two languages express number, case and gender distinctions. The structure of the noun phrase in English and Dutch is compared in section 3.3. It is in this area that some of the major syntactic differences manifest themselves. Section 3.4 deals with pronouns and pays some attention to Dutch *er* and its English equivalents.

3.2 Nouns

3.2.1 Number

Nouns can be classified in the same way in English and Dutch. Both languages have proper nouns and common nouns; the latter class can be subdivided into count nouns and non–count nouns. Cf.:

			English singular	English plural	Dutch singular	Dutch plural
	Proper nouns:		Peter	—	Peter	—
			London	—	Londen	—
			—	The Alps	—	De Alpen
Nouns	Common nouns:	Count nouns:	word	words	woord	woorden
			novel	novels	roman	romans
			glass	glasses	glas	glazen
		Non–count nouns:	hatred	—	haat	—
			blood	—	bloed	—
			glass	—	glas	—
			—	clothes	—	kleren
			—	measles	—	mazelen

Count nouns are variable: they have two forms, one for the singular (*word/ woord*) and one for the plural (*words/woorden*). Proper nouns and non–count nouns, on the other hand, are invariable: they have only one form, which is either singular (*London/Londen, hatred/haat*) or plural (*The Alps/De Alpen, clothes/kleren*). Many nouns (like *glass/glas*) are count nouns in one meaning and non–count nouns in another. There are also cases where a lexical item can serve as both count noun and non–count noun in one language, where the other has two lexical items. Cf.:

English	Dutch	Dutch	English
	bos		loaf
wood		brood	
	hout		bread
	krant		country
paper		land	
	papier		land
	strijkijzer		
iron			
	ijzer		

The formation of the plural

Most Dutch nouns form their plural by means of the suffixes –*en* or –*s*:

boek – boeken	sleutel – sleutels
raam – ramen	dochter – dochters

In English the majority of nouns form their plural by means of the suffix –*(e)s*, pronounced /ɪz/, /z/ or /s/, depending on the final sound of the base (see Appendix III):

college – colleges	son – sons	ship – ships
language – languages	animal – animals	result – results
box – boxes	piano – pianos	cliff – cliffs

Among the nouns that take irregular plurals in English are the following:

1. a number of nouns that end in voiceless /θ/ and /f/ and change these into voiced /ð/ and /v/ before final /z/:

/θ/→/ð/	in:	bath	– baths	path	– paths		
		mouth	– mouths	youth	– youths		

/f/→/v/	in:	calf	– calves	leaf	– leaves	thief	– thieves
		half	– halves	sheaf	– sheaves	loaf	– loaves
		knife	– knives	elf	– elves	wolf	– wolves
		life	– lives	self	– selves		
		wife	– wives	shelf	– shelves		

Note that /s/→/z/ in: house – houses

2. a number of nouns that form their plural by means of a change in the medial vowel (=mutation):

foot	– feet	louse	– lice	man	– men
tooth	– teeth	mouse	– mice	woman	– women
goose	– geese				

3. the nouns *child* and *ox*, which take a plural in *–en*:

child – children   ox – oxen

4. some nouns that have the same form in the singular as in the plural (=zero plural). We can distinguish:

a. some names of animals:

carp	– karper(s)	salmon	– zalm(en)	deer	– hert(en)
pike	– snoek(en)	trout	– forel(len)	sheep	– scha(a)p(en)
plaice	– schol(len)	grouse	– korhoen(ders)		

b. some names of nationalities:

Chinese	– Chinees(–ezen)	Portuguese	– Portugees(–ezen)
Japanese	– Japanner(–s)	Swiss	– Zwitser(–s)
Vietnamese	– Vietnamees(–ezen)		

c. some nouns ending in *–s* and *–es*:

barracks	– kazerne(s)	works	– fabriek(en)
headquarters	– hoofdkwartier(en)	series	– serie(s)
means	– middel(en)	species	– soort(en)

5. a number of foreign plurals. We can distinguish:

    a. Latin nouns ending in *–us*, *–a* and *–um* (some of which have two plurals,
       one 'English', the other 'Latin'):

    –us → *–i* /aɪ/:

cactus	– cactuses/cacti	syllabus	– syllabuses/syllabi
focus	– focuses/foci	alumnus	– alumni
radius	– radiuses/radii	stimulus	– stimuli

    Note: genus – genera   corpus   – corpora

    –a → *–ae* /iː/:

formula	– formulae	alumna	– alumnae
vertebra	– vertebrae	larva	– larvae

    –um → *–a* /ə/:

memorandum	– memoranda/–ums	desideratum	– desiderata
symposium	– symposia/–ums	erratum	– errata
addendum	– addenda	stratum	– strata
corrigendum	– corrigenda		

    Note the form *data* (=Dutch *gegeven(s)*), which may be treated as singu-
    lar or plural in English.

    b. Greek nouns ending in *–is* and *–on*:

    –is → *–es* /iːz/:

analysis	– analyses	parenthesis	– parentheses
basis	– bases	thesis	– theses
hypothesis	– hypotheses		

    –on → *–a* /ə/:

phenomenon	– phenomena	criterion	– criteria

As we have seen, non–count nouns are invariable: they occur either in the sin-

gular or in the plural. Singular non–count nouns cannot be pluralized or be pre-
ceded by the indefinite article or a numeral. Hence we do not normally find:

> *jealousies   –   *jaloersheden
> *a patience   –   *een geduld
> *two wines   –   *twee wijnen

However, the starred expressions above are possible when the meaning con-
veyed is 'a kind of', 'kinds of' or 'instances of'. Cf.:

I'm fed up with all her jealousies	– Ik heb genoeg van al haar jaloersheden
He has a patience you cannot help admiring	– Hij heeft een geduld dat je wel moet bewonderen
These two wines must be very old	– Deze twee wijnen moeten erg oud zijn

Since the indefinite article cannot occur before singular non–count nouns, En-
glish has to resort to the use of so–called 'partitives' (like *a piece of, a bit of*,
etc.) in order to express the notion 'one'. Cf.:

a piece of advice (*not*: *an advice)	– een raad
a piece of information (*not*: *an information)	– een inlichting
a piece of furniture (*not*: *a furniture)	– een meubelstuk
an article of clothing	– een kledingstuk
a piece/bit of news	– een nieuwtje
a bit/stroke of luck	– een geluk
a piece of evidence	– een bewijs
a bit of fun	– een pleziertje
a lump of sugar	– een suikerklontje

Note that partitives can be pluralized in order to express the notion 'more than
one':

pieces of advice (*not*: *advices)	– raadgevingen
two articles of clothing (*not*: *two clothings)	– twee kledingstukken

some pieces of information   – sommige inlichtingen
(*not*: *some informations)
bits of news   – nieuwtjes
(*not*: *newses)
loaves (of bread)   – broden
(*not*: *breads)

As far as plural non–count nouns in English are concerned, we should note that many of them have singular counterparts in Dutch. Cf.:

binoculars	– verrekijker	arrears	– achterstand
tights	– maillot	contents	– inhoud
shorts	– korte broek	customs	– douane
scissors	– schaar	fireworks	– vuurwerk
pyjamas	– pyjama	headquarters	– hoofdkwartier
trousers	– broek	riches	– rijkdom
pants	– onderbroek	savings	– spaargeld
spectacles	– bril	surroundings	– omgeving
pincers	– nijptang	stairs	– trap
thanks	– dank	mathematics	– wiskunde
wages	– loon	proceeds	– opbrengst
premises	– pand	billiards	– biljartspel
linguistics	– taalkunde	draughts	– damspel
physics	– natuurkunde		

The Dutch nouns in the right–hand columns can be preceded by an indefinite article as well as by a numeral or a singular demonstrative pronoun. This is impossible with their English counterparts, which require a partitive or a plural pronoun. Cf.:

a pair of trousers	(*not*: *a trousers)	– een broek
two pairs of trousers	(*not*: *two trousers)	– twee broeken
this pair of trousers/ these trousers	(*not*: *this trousers)	– deze broek

3.2.2   Case

The genitive is the only case we need to discuss here. In Dutch the genitive is always singular and virtually restricted to proper nouns denoting persons:

| Peter's books | – Peters boeken |
| Shakespeare's *Hamlet* | – Shakespeares *Hamlet* |

In English the genitive is mainly used with nouns denoting persons, but it can also occur with nouns that have non–personal reference. English has singular as well as plural genitives. Examples:

the man's girlfriend	– de vriendin van de man
London's history	– de geschiedenis van Londen
today's weather	– het weer van vandaag
the students' union	– de studentenvereniging
a few weeks' holiday	– een vakantie van een paar weken

Note that the so–called classifying genitive in English usually has a compound noun counterpart in Dutch:

a summer's day	– een zomerdag
a bird's nest	– een vogelnestje
a men's shop	– een herenzaak
children's books	– kinderboeken

English also has a so–called 'group' genitive, that is a construction in which the genitive ending is attached to the last word of a group:

Watson and Crick's DNA research	– het DNA onderzoek van Watson en Crick
my sister–in–law's baby	– de baby van mijn schoonzus
an hour and a half's discussion	– een discussie van anderhalf uur

On constructions like *Jan z'n fiets* see 3.4.4.

In the examples above the genitive is used attributively, that is, in a construction in which it is followed by a noun. This is the only way of using the genitive in Dutch. English has three additional types of genitive:

1. the 'local' genitive is used in constructions in which the genitive stands on its own. The reference is to a shop, a public building or a house:

| Is anyone going to the butcher's? | – Gaat er iemand naar de slager? |
| Good food costs less at | – Goede levensmiddelen zijn |

Sainsbury's	goedkoper bij Sainsbury
The party is at Peter's/at the Johnsons'	– Het feest is bij Peter/bij de familie Johnson

Some names of well–known department stores in London (for example *Harrods* and *Selfridges*) are no longer felt to have any connection with genitives and are therefore spelt without an apostrophe.

2. the 'elliptic' genitive occurs in constructions in which the following noun has been deleted; the noun can be recovered from the context:

This bike is Sylvia's. Frank's is in the garage	– Deze fiets is van Sylvia. Die van Frank staat in de garage
Paul's is a splendid house	– Het huis van Paul is schitterend
You shouldn't compare your accent with your neighbour's	– Je moet jouw accent niet vergelijken met dat van je buurman

3. the 'double' genitive is used in constructions in which the genitive is part of a prepositional phrase introduced by *of*. The word in the genitive has personal reference and is definite:

friends of my mother's	– vrienden van mijn moeder
two sisters of Robert's	– twee zussen van Robert
that new hat of Susan's	– die nieuwe hoed van Susan

3.2.3   Gender

Gender in English is chiefly sex–based. This means that

masculine nouns (i.e. nouns referring to males) are referred to by the masculine pronouns *he, him, his* and *himself* (also by the relative pronoun *who*);

feminine nouns (i.e. nouns referring to females) are referred to by the feminine pronouns *she, her* and *herself* (also by the relative pronoun *who*);

neuter nouns (i.e. nouns with inanimate reference) are referred to by the neuter pronouns *it, its* and *itself* (also by the relative pronoun *which*).

Examples:

> My uncle arrived late. He had missed his train
> The bride lost her veil as she entered the church
> What do you think of the plan which was proposed last night?
> I think it is great

Among the exceptions to the above rule are nouns referring to ships or countries. They can be treated as neuter or feminine:

> The *Queen Juliana* must be pretty old. When was it/she built?
> France will have to improve its/her export figures

In Dutch gender is not sex–based. Dutch nouns can be divided into two classes (*de*–words and *het*–words), depending on whether they are preceded in the singular by the definite article *de* or *het*.

In Dutch *de*–words are either masculine or feminine. Masculine *de*–words are referred to by the pronouns *hij, hem, zijn* and by the relative pronoun *die*. Examples:

> De man die ons aansprak was zijn pas kwijt
> Waar is je auto? Hij staat op de hoek

Feminine *de*–words are referred to by the pronouns *zij, haar* and by relative *die*. Examples:

> De secretaresse is er niet. Zij heeft haar vrije dag
> De jeugd heeft nog steeds haar idealen

Most *het*–words require the pronouns *het* and *zijn*. The relative pronoun is always *dat*.

> Ik heb een boek gekocht. Het ligt op tafel
> Er is weinig bekend over het kasteel en zijn bewoners
> Het meisje dat voorop liep werd aangereden

3.3   Noun phrases

3.3.1   *Introduction*

In this section the structure of the noun phrase in English and Dutch will be compared. Both languages have essentially the same basic NP structure (see 2.4.2.1):

(Determiner)   –   (Premodifier)   –   Head   –   (Postmodifier)

This structure is illustrated by examples like the following, which contain all four elements:

An interesting lecture on *Hamlet*	– Een interessant college over *Hamlet*
His expensive cottage in Devon	– Zijn dure huisje in Devon
The new books he reviewed in *The Observer*	– De nieuwe boeken die hij besproken heeft in *The Observer*

Differences involving the use of determiners are discussed in 3.3.2. Among the major differences between Dutch and English noun phrases are the use of adjectives and participles as noun phrase heads as well as the use of certain premodificational and postmodificational structures. These are dealt with in 3.3.3 – 3.3.5, respectively.

3.3.2   *Determiners*

As we have seen in 2.4.2.1, we can distinguish three classes of determiners in English: predeterminers, central determiners and postdeterminers. These will be compared with their Dutch counterparts in 3.3.2.1 – 3.3.2.3. Some determiner items are dealt with in 3.4. Many words that function as determiners in English can also function independently. For the sake of convenience this section also deals with their independent use.

3.3.2.1   *Predeterminers*

The predeterminers *all*, *both*, *double* and *half* can be followed by the definite article as well as by demonstrative and possessive pronouns (and genitives). *Half* can also be followed by the indefinite article. The examples below illustrate some of the differences with the Dutch equivalents:

All John's money was gone	– Al het geld van Jan was verdwenen
Both her brothers live abroad	– Haar beide broers wonen in het buitenland
I earn double Jack's salary	– Ik verdien het dubbele van het salaris van Jack
Half these books are mine	– De helft van deze boeken is van mij
Half an hour is too short	– Een half uur is te kort

Apart from being used as predeterminers, *all, both* and *half* can be used independently and be followed by a prepositional phrase introduced by *of*. A prepositional construction is impossible in Dutch, except after *de helft*. Cf.:

All (of) my friends passed	– Al mijn vrienden zijn geslaagd
All of them passed	– Allen zijn geslaagd
Both (of) the children were drowned	– Beide kinderen verdronken
Both (of them) were drowned	– Beiden verdronken
Half (of) my income goes to tax	– De helft van mijn inkomen gaat naar de belasting
Half (of it) goes to tax	– De helft gaat naar de belasting

All can be followed by cardinal numerals and by plural nouns as well as non–count nouns. It corresponds to Dutch *al(le)*, *de/het hele*:

All three (of them) had disappeared	– Ze waren alle drie verdwenen
All questions must be answered	– Alle vragen moeten worden beantwoord
He has spent all his life abroad	– Hij heeft zijn hele leven in het buitenland doorgebracht
We had to do all the hard work	– Wij moesten al het zware werk doen
I haven't seen her all year	– Ik heb haar het hele jaar niet gezien

Dutch *allerlei* corresponds to *all kinds/sorts of*:

He had all kinds/sorts of objections	– Hij had allerlei bezwaren

Dutch *(de) beide* corresponds to English *both* when strong–stressed. Otherwise the English equivalent is *the two*. Cf.:

| Both girls live in New York | – Beide meisjes wonen in New York |
| Their son is dead, but the two girls are still alive | – Hun zoon is dood, maar de beide meisjes leven nog |

All and *both* can follow the noun phrase head in English, either immediately or in mid–position in the sentence (after the first auxiliary). The Dutch equivalents of *all* and *both* cannot follow the noun phrase head immediately, except if it is a personal pronoun. Cf.:

All the children loved her	– Alle kinderen hielden van haar
The children all loved her	– De kinderen hielden allemaal van haar
All the students are preparing for their exams	– Alle studenten bereiden zich voor op hun examen
The students are all preparing for their exams	– De studenten bereiden zich allemaal voor op hun examen
We all know how difficult this is	– Wij allen weten hoe moeilijk dit is
Both these books cost over 10 pounds	– Deze beide boeken kosten meer dan 10 pond
These books both cost over 10 pounds	– Deze boeken kosten beide meer dan 10 pond
Both my eyes were hurting	– Mijn beide ogen deden pijn
My eyes were both hurting	– Mijn ogen deden beide pijn
You will both be responsible	– Jullie beiden zullen verantwoordelijk zijn

The predeterminers *many (a)*, *what (a)* and *such (a)* correspond to Dutch *menig(e)*, *wat een* and *zo'n*, respectively:

Many a man would be jealous of him	– Menig man zou jaloers op hem zijn
What a wonderful house you have!	– Wat een prachtig huis hebt U!
Belinda is such a nice girl	– Belinda is zo'n aardig meisje

Such a thing corresponds to Dutch *zoiets*:

| I have never heard of such a thing | – Zoiets heb ik nog nooit gehoord |

3.3.2.2   Central determiners

Of the central determiners we shall here discuss the articles (including the zero article = the non–use of the article), and the quantifiers *some, any, every, each, either, neither* and *no*. For the sake of convenience this section also deals with the compounds of *some, any, every* and *no*, as well as with *none*, although, strictly speaking, these words cannot function as central determiners.

The articles

Generally speaking, the articles are used in much the same way in Dutch as they are in English. Thus in both languages the definite as well as the indefinite article can have generic as well as specific reference:

The elephant is dying out	– De olifant sterft uit
An elephant has a trunk	– Een olifant heeft een slurf
The/an elephant in the zoo has died	– De/een olifant in de dierentuin is gestorven

The principal differences in usage are listed for each article separately.

The definite article

English takes the zero article where Dutch has the definite article:

1. before singular non–count nouns with generic reference. Note that no article is used in English even in cases where the noun is premodified by one or more adjectives or postmodified by a prepositional phrase. The definite article is used, however, if the prepositional phrase is introduced by *of* and if the noun is postmodified by a restrictive relative clause. In Dutch the definite article can often be dispensed with. Cf.:

literature	– (de) letterkunde
English literature	– (de) Engelse letterkunde
17th–century English literature	– (de) 17e eeuwse Engelse letterkunde
English literature in the 17th century	– de Engelse letterkunde in de 17e eeuw
the literature of the 17th century	– de letterkunde van de 17e eeuw
the literature (that) he admires	– de letterkunde die hij bewondert
European history/the history of Europe	– de geschiedenis van Europa

country life/life in the country	– het leven op het platteland
medieval music/the music of the Middle Ages	– de middeleeuwse muziek
Renaissance culture/the culture of the Renaissance	– de cultuur van de Renaissance

2. before plural count nouns with generic reference. Dutch also regularly dispenses with the definite article in this case, but the article is required in examples like the following:

Prices are rising again	– De prijzen gaan weer omhoog
Members are requested to pay their subscriptions before January 1st	– De leden worden verzocht hun contributie voor 1 januari te betalen
Circumstances have improved	– De omstandigheden zijn verbeterd
Under existing conditions…	– In de huidige omstandigheden…
The course of events…	– De loop der gebeurtenissen…
He takes things too seriously	– Hij vat de dingen te ernstig op
Rents are much too high	– De huren zijn veel te hoog
Chances are that…	– De kans bestaat dat…

3. before singular count nouns with generic reference that denote

   a. meals: *breakfast, lunch, dinner*, etc.:

We always have a glass of sherry before dinner	– We drinken altijd een glas sherry voor het eten

   b. seasons: *spring, summer, autumn, winter*:

In winter they usually go to Austria	– In de winter gaan ze gewoonlijk naar Oostenrijk

   c. means of transport: *car, bus, bicycle*, etc.:

Did you come by bus? No, by train	– Ben je met de bus gekomen? Nee, met de trein

   d. institutions: *church, hospital, prison, university*, etc.:

How long has he been in prison?	– Hoe lang zit hij al in de gevangenis?

   Note that, if the reference is specific rather than generic, the definite article is used:

In the summer of 1980 we were in France	– In de zomer van 1980 zijn we in Frankrijk geweest
The Queen visited the prison 2 years ago	– De Koningin heeft de gevangenis 2 jaar geleden bezocht

4. before the words *most* and *half*, and also before *next* and *last* in fixed expressions like *next/last week, month, year, time*, etc.:

most people	– de meeste mensen
half his life	– de helft van zijn leven
next week	– de volgende week
last year	– het afgelopen jaar

Note the difference between *most* (= 'the majority of') and *the most* (= 'more than anybody else'):

Most books are expensive	– De meeste boeken zijn duur
He has the most books	– Hij heeft de meeste boeken

Next and *last* usually require the definite article, just as in Dutch (e.g. in *the next/last train/meeting*). It is only in fixed expressions like *next/last week* that the zero article is used.

Note that the definite article can be used before *next* if the reference is to a period of time in the past. Cf.:

I'm going to resign next year	– Ik neem het volgend jaar ontslag
In 1980 he fell ill. The next year he resigned	– In 1980 werd hij ziek. Het volgend jaar nam hij ontslag

Compare also:

all day/night	– de hele dag/nacht

5. before proper nouns preceded by an adjective:

Medieval York	– het middeleeuwse York
Ancient Rome	– het oude Rome
Victorian England	– het Victoriaanse Engeland

Note the difference between *young Smith* (i.e. the son, not the father) and *the young Smith* (= Smith when he was young).

The definite article before superlatives

Both Dutch and English require the definite article before superlatives used in premodification:

This is the most expensive hotel   – Dit is het duurste hotel in Londen
    in London

English does not use the definite article before predicative superlatives, however:

It would be wisest/best to go   – Het zou het verstandigste/beste zijn
    now   om nu te gaan

Before adverbial superlatives Dutch requires *het*, but in English the article is often optional:

Your son behaved the most   – Jouw zoon gedroeg zich het
    politely   beleefdst
Who laughed loudest?   – Wie lachte het hardst?
What I like most is his honesty   – Waar ik het meeste van hou is zijn
                                                        eerlijkheid
My students work hardest   – Mijn studenten werken het hardst

English does not use the definite article before *most* in sentences that do not imply comparison. In such cases Dutch has *zeer, heel* or *erg* + superlative. Cf.:

His manner was the most   – Zijn optreden was het irritantst
    irritating
His manner was most irritating   – Zijn optreden was zeer irritant
He wrote most carefully   – Hij schreef zeer zorgvuldig

Other cases

Dutch as well as English use a possessive pronoun before nouns denoting a part of the body, provided the 'owner' of the body part is the agent of the action denoted by the verb. If this is not the case, Dutch has the definite article or a possessive pronoun, but English always requires the definite article. Cf.:

She has hit her head   – Ze heeft haar hoofd gestoten
He has sprained his ankle   – Hij heeft zijn enkel verstuikt

but:

He took me by the hand	– Hij nam me bij de/mijn hand
She kissed him on the cheek	– Ze kuste hem op de/zijn wang
He was shot through the head	– Hij kreeg een kogel door het/zijn hoofd

Before nouns denoting fixed measures English uses *by* + the definite article where Dutch has *per*:

Eggs are sold by the dozen	– Eieren worden per dozijn verkocht
Students are paid by the hour	– Studenten worden per uur betaald

The indefinite article

English requires the indefinite article in the following cases where Dutch takes the zero article:

1. before nouns denoting a profession (or occupation), a religion or a nationality. The noun in question stands in an intensive relation to the subject or direct object of the sentence.

My daughter is a professor	– Mijn dochter is hoogleraar
Are you a Roman Catholic?	– Ben jij katholiek?
Maurice is a Frenchman	– Maurice is Fransman
They appointed her a member of the Board of Directors	– Ze benoemden haar tot directielid

The indefinite article is not used after the verb *turn* nor when the noun denotes a unique profession:

His son has turned Buddhist	– Zijn zoon is Bhoeddist geworden
Her husband is captain of a submarine	– Haar man is kapitein van een onderzeeboot

2. after the prepositions *as* and *without* (before singular count–nouns):

He works as a waiter	– Hij werkt als ober
She is without a job	– Zij zit zonder baan

3. before the numerals *hundred* and *thousand*:

His library contains a hundred/a   – Zijn bibliotheek bevat honderd/
   thousand books   duizend boeken

4. before titles of books:

A History of Linguistics   – Geschiedenis van de Taalkunde
An Introduction to Logic   – Inleiding tot de Logica
A Grammar of Contemporary   – Grammatica van het Hedendaags
   English   Engels

5. in a number of idiomatic expressions. Examples:

to take an interest in   – belang stellen in
to be in a hurry   – haast hebben
to have a headache   – hoofdpijn hebben
to have a right to   – recht hebben op
to go on a journey   – op reis gaan
to make a difference   – verschil maken
to draw/make a distinction   – onderscheid maken
to be on a visit   – op bezoek zijn
to make a fortune   – fortuin maken
to have an eye for   – oog hebben voor
in a sense   – in zekere zin
on a large scale   – op grote schaal
to a certain extent   – tot op zekere hoogte
as a rule   – als regel
as a result of   – als gevolg van

In Dutch the indefinite article is used in the expressions *wat een* and *zo'n* before singular non–count nouns and plural nouns. English takes the zero article:

What nonsense!   – Wat een onzin!
What splendid news!   – Wat een geweldig nieuws!
What beautiful eyes!   – Wat een mooie ogen!
Such joy   – Zo'n vreugde
Such courage   – Zo'n moed
Such cowards   – Zo'n lafaards

Note that *what* and *such* must be followed by the indefinite article before singular count nouns:

What a beauty your daughter is	– Wat een schoonheid is jouw dochter
Such a shock was unexpected	– Zo'n schok kwam onverwacht

The indefinite article corresponds to Dutch *per* when used before nouns denoting measures:

80 miles an hour	– 80 mijl per uur
twice a week	– twee keer per week

The indefinite article corresponds to Dutch *een zekere* when used before Mr/Mrs/Miss + proper name:

A Mr MacDonald wants to see you	– Een zekere meneer MacDonald wil je spreken

Note that the indefinite article takes initial position in Dutch but not in English in:

half a day	– een halve dag
too difficult an exercise	– een te moeilijke oefening
as large an amount	– een even grote hoeveelheid
quite a problem	– een heel probleem
quite a dear	– een heel lief mens
rather a surprise	– een hele verrassing

In both languages the indefinite article can be used before proper names in the meaning 'a person like' or 'an aspect of':

He thinks he's an Einstein	– Hij denkt dat hij een Einstein is
She showed me a London I didn't know	– Zij toonde mij een Londen dat ik niet kende

Some and *any*

Some and *any* can function both as central determiners and independently. They correspond to Dutch *sommige(n)*, *enkele(n)*, *een paar* or *wat*. *Some* (and its compounds *somebody*, *someone*, *something* and *somewhere*) is used in positive declarative sentences. Examples:

Jim is staying with some friends	– Jim logeert bij een paar vrienden
He has lent me some money	– Hij heeft me wat geld geleend

Some of these records are cheap	– Sommige van deze platen zijn goedkoop
Somebody must have seen you	– Iemand moet je gezien hebben
He is hiding something	– Hij verbergt iets
It is somewhere near here	– Het is hier ergens in de buurt

Any (and its compounds *anybody, anyone, anything* and *anywhere*) is used in questions and in negative sentences. The latter include sentences containing words that are negative in meaning, such as *hardly, scarcely* and *seldom*. Examples:

Do you have any money on you?	– Heb je geld bij je?
Is anybody going to the cinema?	– Gaat er iemand naar de bioscoop?
Do you know anything about football?	– Weet jij iets over voetbal?
Dolly doesn't have any children	– Dolly heeft geen kinderen
He has never told me anything	– Hij heeft me nooit iets verteld
We are not going anywhere in the summer	– We gaan van de zomer nergens heen
She has hardly any friends	– Ze heeft bijna geen vrienden
I know hardly anybody here	– Ik ken hier bijna niemand
We seldom go anywhere	– We gaan zelden ergens heen

Any–words are also used in indirect questions, in clauses following a negative main clause, in conditional clauses, in clauses expressing comparison and after negative verbs, adjectives and prepositions. Examples:

I wonder if anybody has seen him	– Ik vraag me af of iemand hem heeft gezien
I don't believe there is any cause for anxiety	– Ik geloof niet dat er reden is voor ongerustheid
If you see anyone, do not say a word	– Als je iemand ziet, zeg dan niets
Your secretary works harder than anybody in your office	– Jouw secretaresse werkt harder dan wie ook op jouw kantoor
He denied he had seen anything	– Hij ontkende dat hij iets gezien had
They are unwilling to make any promise	– Zij zijn niet bereid om beloften te doen
She embraced him without any hesitation	– Ze omhelsde hem zonder enige aarzeling

Already, too and *sometimes* behave like *some*–words and are used in positive contexts. *Yet, either* and *ever* behave like *any*–words and are used in negative contexts and in questions. Cf.:

I've already finished my essay	– Ik ben al klaar met mijn essay
Have you finished your essay yet?	– Ben je al klaar met je essay?
Bill is coming, too	– Bill komt ook
Bill isn't coming, either	– Bill komt ook niet
I sometimes see him in London	– Ik zie hem soms in Londen
Do you ever see him in London?	– Zie je hem ooit in Londen?

As we have seen, *any*–words typically occur in negative sentences and in questions. *Some*–words can also occur in questions, however, provided the question has a positive orientation, that is, the answer to the question is expected to be 'yes'. Cf.:

Are there any letters for me?	– Zijn er ook brieven voor mij?
Are there some letters for me?	
Is there anything to eat?	– Is er iets te eten?
Is there something to eat?	
Did anybody phone yesterday?	– Heeft gisteren iemand opgebeld?
Did somebody phone yesterday?	

Finally we give some examples of strong–stressed *any* and its compounds. They are typically used in positive, declarative sentences in the meaning 'no matter who/what/where' (= Dutch 'wie/wat/waar dan ook'):

Any child can learn that	– Ieder kind kan dat leren
You can come any day you like	– Je kunt elke dag komen
She believes anything you tell her	– Zij gelooft alles wat je haar vertelt
Put it down anywhere you like	– Zet het maar ergens neer

Every and *each*

Every and *each* can be used as central determiners before singular count nouns. They can also be used before *one*. The Dutch equivalents are *ieder(e)*, *elk(e)*.

The difference between *every* and *each* is that *every* refers to three or more units that together make up a whole, whereas *each* refers to two or more members of a group (especially when the reference is to a group that has just been mentioned). Cf.:

He works every day of the week	– Hij werkt iedere dag van de week
Not every car is so economical	– Niet iedere auto is zo zuinig
There are trees on every side of the square	– Aan iedere kant van het plein staan bomen
I was looking for a glass but every one of them had disappeared	– Ik zocht naar een glas maar ze waren allemaal verdwenen
He has 50 students and each student (each/each of them) has to write an essay	– Hij heeft 50 studenten en iedere student moet een werkstuk schrijven
This department has 2 professors. Each/each of them has published widely	– Deze afdeling heeft 2 hoogleraren. Ze hebben alle twee veel gepubliceerd
On each side of the road there were parked cars	– Aan iedere kant van de weg stonden geparkeerde auto's
For each (one) of the victims she had words of comfort	– Voor ieder van de slachtoffers had ze woorden van troost

Note that *each* as well as *every* can be used as central determiners, but that *every*, unlike *each*, cannot be used independently in English. Cf.:

Each member of the club was present	– Ieder lid van de club was aanwezig
Every member of the club was present	
Each one of them/ each of them/each was present	– Ieder van hen was aanwezig
Every one of them/*every of them/*every was present	

Note the following miscellaneous uses of *every* and *each*:

I have every reason to believe that he is lying	– Ik heb alle reden om te geloven dat hij liegt

He visits her every other day	– Hij bezoekt haar om de andere dag
They each have 20 pounds/ They have 20 pounds each	– Ze hebben ieder 20 pond
These paperbacks are 90p each	– Deze pockets kosten 90p per stuk

The compounds of *every* (*everybody, everyone, everything* and *everywhere*) differ from the compounds of *any* (*anybody, anyone, anything* and *anywhere*) in that the latter always have the connotation 'no matter who/what/where' in positive, declarative sentences. Dutch has the same lexical item for both *every*–words and *any*–words:

Everybody knows this story	– Iedereen kent dit verhaal
Anybody can say that	– Iedereen kan dat wel zeggen
She has told me everything	– Ze heeft me alles verteld
You believe anything they tell you	– Jij gelooft ook alles wat ze je vertellen
I've been looking for you everywhere	– Ik heb je overal gezocht
She goes anywhere he goes	– Zij gaat overal heen waar hij gaat

Either and *neither*

Either and *neither* can function as central determiners as well as independently. When used as determiners they are followed by singular count nouns. The reference is always to two persons or things. *Either* has two meanings: 'one or the other of two' (= Dutch *één van beide(n)*) or 'the one and the other of two' (= Dutch *beide(n)*). In the latter meaning *either* is synonymous with *both*. *Neither* means 'not the one and not the other of two' (= Dutch *geen van beide(n)*). Examples:

You can choose either of these presents	– Je kunt één van deze twee cadeaus kiezen
You can use either method (= both methods). Neither method is satisfactory	– Je kunt beide methodes gebruiken. Geen van beide methodes is bevredigend
My parents live in Paris, but neither (of them) speaks French	– Mijn ouders wonen in Parijs, maar geen van beiden spreekt Frans

No and *none*

Although *none* cannot function as central determiner, it is convenient to dis-

cuss it here, together with *no*. *No* can only function as central determiner, never independently. It occurs before singular as well as plural nouns. The Dutch equivalent is *geen*:

He has no money/friends   – Hij heeft geen geld/vrienden

No cannot have a nominal function. Instead English has *none*:

None of his friends is/are rich   – Geen van zijn vrienden is rijk

English also has *none* where Dutch has *er geen* as a pro–form for a preceding noun:

He asked for cigarettes, but I   – Hij vroeg om sigaretten, maar ik
  had none   had er geen

and where Dutch has *niets(van)*, *niemand(van)*:

She had none of her mother's   – Zij had niets van de vast-
  determination   beslotenheid van haar moeder
None of my colleagues know(s)   – Niemand van mijn collega's weet
  about this   hiervan

In the following examples Dutch *geen* corresponds to *no* or to *not a* in English. The examples with *not a* simply express a denial, those with *no* express the opposite of the meaning denoted by the following word:

Frank is not a genius   – Frank is geen genie
Frank is no genius
This exercise is not an easy one   – Deze oefening is niet gemakkelijk
This exercise is no easy one

In English *no* can be followed by *such* + singular/plural noun. The corresponding construction in Dutch is *(een) dergelijk(e)* + singular/plural noun + *...niet*:

No such measures are   – Dergelijke maatregelen zijn niet
  necessary   noodzakelijk
No such promise was made   – Een dergelijke belofte is niet
                                          gedaan

In negative sentences and in questions English usually allows a choice between

constructions containing *no*–words (*no, none, nobody, no one, nothing* and *no-where*) and constructions containing *not* + *any*–words (*any, anybody, anyone, anything* and *anywhere*). Cf.:

He has no friends/He doesn't have any friends	– Hij heeft geen vrienden
He has none/He doesn't have any	– Hij heeft er geen
Does he have no friends?/ Doesn't he have any friends?	– Heeft hij geen vrienden?
She knows nobody here/She doesn't know anybody here	– Zij kent hier niemand
Does she know nobody here?/ Doesn't she know anybody here?	– Kent zij hier niemand?

Note that this variation does not occur before the verb. Cf.:

Nobody saw him/ *Not anybody saw him	– Niemand zag hem
Nothing happened/ *Not anything happened	– Er gebeurde niets

3.3.2.3 Postdeterminers

In the structure of the noun phrase postdeterminers follow central determiners and precede premodifiers, both in Dutch and in English. Ordinal numbers (including *next* and *last*) precede cardinal numbers. Examples:

his many English friends	– zijn vele Engelse vrienden
her last two attempts	– haar laatste twee pogingen
our own house	– ons eigen huis

Note that *eigen* can be preceded by the indefinite article in Dutch. English normally requires a prepositional phrase introduced by *of*:

She has a study of her own	– Zij heeft een eigen studeerkamer

Note, however:

| an own cousin | – een eigen neef |
| an own goal | – een eigen doelpunt |

Other can be preceded by *every* in English. Dutch has *om de/het andere*:

| He goes home every other week | – Hij gaat om de andere week naar huis |

Such, when used as a postdeterminer, can be preceded by numerals and by other determiners like *many, few, same* and *any*. Dutch sometimes requires a prepositional phrase with *van*:

| Two such cases are known | – Twee van zulke gevallen zijn bekend |
| Many such stories have been recorded | – Veel van dergelijke verhalen zijn opgetekend |

The Dutch quantifiers *veel* and *weinig* correspond to *much/many* and *little/few* respectively, depending on whether the following noun is singular or plural. Cf.:

| much money | – veel geld | little time | – weinig tijd |
| many books | – veel boeken | few people | – weinig mensen |

Note the difference between *few* and *a few*, *little* and *a little*:

She has few friends (= not many)	– Ze heeft weinig vrienden
She has a few friends (= some)	– Ze heeft een paar vrienden
He knows little English (= not much)	– Hij kent weinig Engels
He knows a little English (= some)	– Hij kent wat Engels

Apart from *much* and *many* English has other quantifying expressions corresponding to Dutch *veel*. They are arranged in three groups below, depending on whether they can be followed by plural count nouns as well as non–count nouns, by plural count nouns only or by non–count nouns only:

plenty of ⎫
lots of   ⎬ : followed by ──── plural count
a lot of ⎭   nouns   : plenty of people
                                                  lots of things
                                                  a lot of books

                                  non–count
                                  nouns   : plenty of information
                                                  lots of time
                                                  a lot of courage
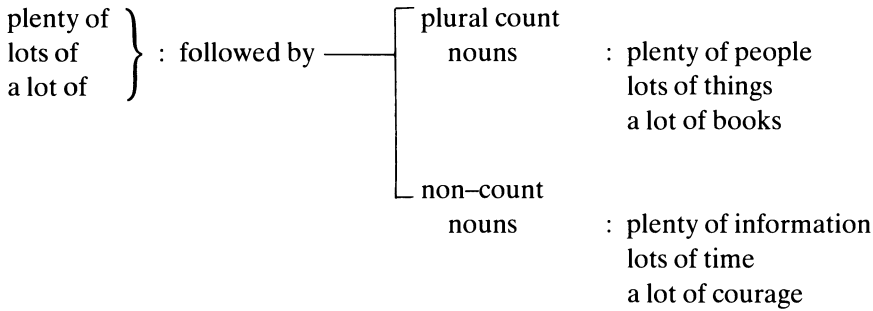
a great number of ⎫
a large number of ⎬ : followed by plural
a good number of ⎭   count nouns only   : a great number of books
                                            a large number of students
                                            a good number of days

a great/good deal of ⎫
a large amount of   ⎬ : followed by non–
a large quantity of   ⎭   count nouns only   : a great/good deal of energy
                                                a large amount of money
                                                a large quantity of food

3.3.3   Premodificational structures

In this section we are only concerned with some major differences. Section 3.3.3.1 deals mainly with premodificational structures that are possible in Dutch but not in English; section 3.3.3.2 with those that are allowed in English but not in Dutch.

3.3.3.1   Premodificational structures in Dutch

In Dutch as well as in English a noun phrase head can be premodified by an adjective, an –*ing* participle and an –*ed* participle. Cf.:

a sensible boy   – een verstandige jongen
playing children   – spelende kinderen
stolen cars   – gestolen auto's

Dutch can also use an infinitive with *te* as a premodifier. English has a passive infinitive in postmodification:

bills to be paid	– te betalen rekeningen
articles to be reduced	– af te prijzen artikelen
an essay to be handed in on May 1st	– een op 1 mei in te leveren werkstuk

More complex premodificational structures involving adjectives and participles are possible in Dutch. In all of the examples below English resorts to postmodification of the noun phrase head. Cf.:

a boy who is sensible for his age	– een voor zijn leeftijd verstandige jongen
children playing in the park	– in het park spelende kinderen
some Vietnamese living in Holland	– sommige in Nederland wonende Vietnamezen
letters intended for publication in this paper	– voor publikatie in dit blad bestemde brieven
some remarks made by the chairman	– enige door de voorzitter gemaakte opmerkingen
a house that was bought cheap	– een goedkoop gekocht huis
his health which had suddenly deteriorated	– zijn plotseling verergerde gezondheidstoestand

All the examples above have a postmodified noun phrase head in English. In other cases English has an alternative construction, with a noun phrase head premodified by a compound *–ed* participle. This construction is impossible in Dutch.

a continent covered with ice/ an ice–covered continent	– een met ijs bedekt continent
security personnel trained by the Home Office/ Home Office–trained security personnel	– door het Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken opgeleid veiligheidspersoneel
a crown studded with jewels/ a jewel–studded crown	– een met juwelen ingelegde kroon

In both languages the *–ed* participle of intransitive verbs can premodify the noun phrase head:

a failed attempt	– een mislukte poging
the risen sun	– de opgekomen zon
our increased chances	– onze toegenomen kansen
a burst blood vessel	– een gesprongen ader
an escaped convict	– een ontsnapte gevangene
a revived interest	– een herleefde belangstelling
a failed student	– een gezakte student
faded flowers	– verwelkte bloemen
a travelled lady	– een bereisde dame
a born teacher	– een geboren onderwijzer
a married couple	– een getrouwd stel
an expired driving licence	– een verlopen rijbewijs
a fallen dictator	– een gevallen dictator
a burnt–down house	– een afgebrand huis
worn–out clothing	– versleten kleding
a dried–up river	– een drooggevallen rivier

In many cases, however, Dutch allows premodification where English does not. Cf.:

*the arrived guests (*but*: the newly arrived guests)	– de aangekomen gasten
*her died husband (*but*: her deceased husband)	– haar gestorven echtgenoot
*the disappeared jewels (*but*: the vanished jewels)	– de verdwenen juwelen
*a succeeded party (*but*: a successful party)	– een geslaagd feest

3.3.3.2   *Premodificational structures in English*

Although Dutch has complex premodificational structures which do not occur in English (see 3.3.3.1), the reverse is also true. English syntax allows premodification of the noun phrase head by items that must follow it in Dutch. These premodificational strings range from single words (for example numerals, proper nouns and genitives) to quite complex phrases. Examples:

the 1983 elections	– de verkiezingen van 1983
the six o'clock news	– het nieuws van 6 uur
an eight–year prison sentence	– een gevangenisstraf van 8 jaar

the Reagan Administration	– de regering Reagan
our Paris correspondent	– onze correspondent in Parijs
the Vietnam war	– de oorlog in Vietnam
today's weather	– het weer van vandaag
the Liberals' determination	– de vastbeslotenheid van de Liberalen

Particularly interesting from a contrastive point of view are those cases where the noun phrase head is preceded by a string of one or more nouns in English. Such strings often correspond to compound nouns in Dutch, especially when the premodification is not very complex (note that Dutch often uses a 'linking' *s*):

chamber music	– kamermuziek
the cinema screen	– het bioscoopscherm
a war correspondent	– een oorlogscorrespondent
unemployment benefits	– werkloosheidsuitkeringen
the World Health Organisation	– de Wereldgezondheidsorganisatie
an air defence system	– een luchtverdedigingssysteem

However, in most cases where the noun phrase head is premodified by two or more nouns in English, Dutch tends to prefer postmodification. Cf.:

income tax forms	– formulieren voor de inkomstenbelasting
Bach cello suites	– suites voor cello van Bach
a London University professorship	– een hoogleraarschap aan de Universiteit van Londen
the Darlington by–election result	– de uitslag van de tussentijdse verkiezingen in Darlington
university entrance requirements	– eisen voor toelating tot de universiteit
the United Nations Security Council	– de Veiligheidsraad van de Verenigde Naties
a BBC World Service production	– een productie van de World Service van de BBC
a 1982 World Championship semi–finalist	– een deelnemer aan de halve finales van de wereldkampioenschappen van 1982
a four–wheel disc brake system	– een systeem met schijfremmen op alle vier de wielen

the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund	– het internationaal kindernoodfonds van de Verenigde Naties
the Edinburgh University Faculty of Arts research fund	– het onderzoeksfonds van de Faculteit der Letteren van de Universiteit van Edinburgh

Premodification by participles is not very frequent in English. Generally speaking, participles can only be used in premodification when they indicate permanent characteristics or are adverbially modified. Cf.:

*a kissing husband	– a loving husband
*a bought house	– a renovated house
*an acting medicine	– a quick–acting medicine
*an invited quest	– a specially invited guest
*a prepared–for test	– a long prepared–for test

Reference to permanent characteristics and adverbial modification would also seem to play a role in Dutch, but these factors are not always relevant, as the last two examples below illustrate:

*a told story	– *een verteld verhaal
*the mentioned facts	– de genoemde feiten
*the arrived guests	– de aangekomen gasten

The following examples show that the *–ed* participle of prepositional and phrasal verbs can be used in premodification in English. Dutch has either premodification or postmodification, depending on the verb used.

a hoped–for takeover	– een overname waarop men gehoopt had
trumped–up charges	– verzonnen beschuldigingen
a stuffed–up nose	– een verstopte neus

As a rule, however, the *–ed* participle of these verbs can only be used in premodification when modified by an adverb or when it has the prefix *un–*:

this endlessly talked–about subject	– dit onderwerp waarover eindeloos is gepraat
these carefully gone–into proposals	– deze zorgvuldig bekeken voorstellen

his very much looked–forward–to retirement	– zijn pensionering waarop hij zich zo verheugd had
your carefully thought–out scheme	– jouw zorgvuldig uitgedacht plan
an unheard–of achievement	– een ongehoorde prestatie
unhoped–for success	– succes waarop we niet gehoopt hadden

3.3.4   The noun phrase head

The noun phrase head is usually realized by a noun or pronoun, but both in Dutch and in English noun phrase heads can be realized by adjectives and participles:

the poor	– de armen	the dying	– de stervenden
the English	– de Engelsen	the unknown	– het onbekende
the unemployed	– de werklozen	the exceptional	– het uitzonder- lijke

Note that English does not allow the use of adjectives and participles as noun phrase heads, unless the reference is generic. Cf.:

the rich	– de rijken
the blind	– de blinden
the French	– de Fransen

| Even the best is not good enough for her | – Zelfs het beste is niet goed genoeg voor haar |
| He has always been interested in the supernatural | – Hij heeft altijd belangstelling gehad voor het bovennatuurlijke |

but:

many rich people	– veel rijken
two blind people	– twee blinden
some Frenchmen	– sommige Fransen

| The best thing for you to do is to resign at once | – Het beste is dat je onmiddellijk ontslag neemt |

The funny thing was that she did not react	– Het gekke was dat ze niet reageerde
The interesting thing about his proposal is that it is cheap	– Het interessante van zijn voorstel is dat het goedkoop is

Cardinal numbers and quantifiers can function as noun phrase heads in English and Dutch. Dutch often requires a construction with *er* (see 3.4.9).

Robert has three sons. All three study at Cambridge	– Robert heeft drie zoons. Alle drie studeren in Cambridge
How many children does she have? She's got three	– Hoeveel kinderen heeft zij? Ze heeft er drie
He owns all the shares and his fellow–directors own none	– Hij bezit alle aandelen en zijn mede–directeuren bezitten er geen

In both languages numerals can be pluralized. Note the use of the plural in English in:

She is in her thirties	– Zij is in de 30
The music of the sixties/ 60s/1960s	– De muziek van de jaren zestig

Note the following miscellaneous expressions:

the four of you	– jullie vieren
the two of them	– zij tweeën
There were five of us	– We waren met z'n vijven
all three of you	– jullie alle drie

3.3.5 Postmodificational structures

In both languages a noun phrase head can be postmodified by finite and non–finite clauses. These are dealt with in 3.3.5.1 and 3.3.5.2, respectively. Adjectives can be used in postmodification in English, especially when they are further complemented (3.3.5.3).

3.3.5.1 Finite clauses in postmodification

If the noun phrase head is postmodified by a finite clause, the clause is usually

either a relative clause or an appositive clause (see 2.4.2.1).

The only type of postmodifying finite clause that requires some comment here is the relative clause. Dutch relative clauses differ from English relative clauses in the following respects (see also 2.4.2.1 and 3.4.5):

1. they can be introduced by compound forms consisting of *waar* + preposition, such as *waarop, waarnaar, waarvan*, etc.. Examples:

The promises on which they had counted/(which) they had counted on...	– De beloften waarop ze hadden gerekend/waar ze op hadden gerekend...
The solution for which I'm looking/(which) I'm looking for...	– De oplossing waarnaar ik zoek/waar ik naar zoek...
A house of which the roof had collapsed/the roof of which had collapsed...	– Een huis waarvan het dak was ingevallen/waar het dak van was ingevallen...

   Note that in the last example the prepositional phrase *of which* can both precede and follow *the roof*. The latter construction (**het dak waarvan...*) is impossible in Dutch.

2. Dutch has relative clauses of the type exemplified below, in which a *waar–*compound is followed by a subject + verb + *dat–*clause pattern. This type of construction is unknown in English. Cf.:

the man who I believe is guilty (*not*: **who I believe that he is guilty*)	– de man waarvan ik geloof dat hij schuldig is
the car which the police assume has been stolen (*not*: **which the police assume that it has been stolen*)	– de auto waarvan de politie aanneemt dat hij gestolen is

3. a preposition in a relative clause in Dutch can occur in clause–initial as well as in clause–medial position, but not finally (as in English). Cf.:

the woman by whom he was fascinated/(who) he was fascinated by	– de vrouw door wie hij werd geboeid/waardoor hij werd geboeid/waar hij door werd geboeid

4. the relative pronoun cannot be left out in Dutch relative clauses. This is possible in English, provided the relative clause is restrictive and the relative pronoun does not function as the subject of the relative clause, and is not immediately preceded by a preposition. Examples:

the many friends (that) he has…	– de vele vrienden die hij heeft…
the woman (that) she used to be…	– de vrouw die ze vroeger was…
the bus (that) you're waiting for…	– de bus waarop je wacht…
the student (that) I lent the book to…	– de student aan wie ik het boek heb geleend…

Note that English, unlike Dutch, has non–finite relative clauses, as in:

The hotel at which to stay…	– Het hotel waar je moet logeren…
The way in which to approach her…	– De manier waarop je haar moet benaderen…

3.3.5.2 Non–finite clauses in postmodification

In English the noun phrase head can be postmodified by three types of non–finite clause: an infinitive clause, an *–ing* participle clause and an *–ed* participle clause.

Infinitive clause

The first two examples show that postmodification by an infinitive clause is also possible in Dutch:

the decision to hold the meeting	– het besluit om de vergadering te houden
the freedom to play a political role	– de vrijheid om een politieke rol te spelen

In many cases, however, Dutch allows only a finite relative clause. This is the only possibility when the infinitive clause in English has an explicit subject of its own.

the man for you to talk to	– de man waarmee je moet praten
the best specialist for her to consult	– de beste specialist die ze kan raadplegen

English also has a postmodifying infinitive after nouns like *fun* and *pleasure* in constructions like those exemplified below. This pattern does not occur in Dutch:

She is great fun to talk to	– Het is erg leuk om met haar te praten
These students are a pleasure to teach	– Het is een genoegen om aan deze studenten les te geven

Note that English usually requires a passive infinitive when the meaning is passive. In such cases Dutch has an active infinitive:

Is there anything to be discussed?	– Is er iets te bespreken?
She is a woman to be reckoned with	– Zij is een vrouw om rekening mee te houden
The earliest Roman settlements to be found in England...	– De vroegste Romeinse nederzettingen die in Engeland te vinden zijn...
There was not a sound to be heard	– Er was geen geluid te horen

In some cases we find both an active and a passive infinitive in English:

There is nothing more to do/ to be done	– Er is niets meer te doen
There are still some bills to pay/to be paid	– Er zijn nog enkele rekeningen te betalen

–ing participle clause

This type of construction is very rare in Dutch, which usually has a full relative clause:

letters covering the period 1910–1950	– brieven die de periode 1910–1950 bestrijken
distinguished musicians playing as soloists	– bekende musici die als solist optreden

a Republican running for mayor in Chicago	– een Republikein die kandidaat is voor het burgemeesterschap in Chicago

–ed clause

Although *–ed* clauses are used in postmodification in both languages, Dutch often prefers a relative clause or a premodificational construction:

figures released by the Ministry of Trade	– cijfers vrijgegeven door het Ministerie van Handel
a memorial erected in memory of the men who died	– een gedenkteken opgericht ter nagedachtenis aan de mannen die omkwamen
atrocities committed by the army	– wreedheden begaan door het leger
the methods employed to extort confessions	– de methoden die worden gebruikt om bekentenissen af te dwingen
abbreviations used	– gebruikte afkortingen
the examples given	– de gegeven voorbeelden

3.3.5.3   *Adjectives in postmodification*

In English the noun phrase head can be postmodified by an adjective which is further complemented. Dutch usually has a relative clause:

the dangers inherent in this policy	– de gevaren die inherent zijn aan deze politiek
a car much more expensive than yours	– een auto die veel duurder is dan die van jou

With words ending in *–body, –one* and *–thing* adjectives can only be used in postmodification (see 5.2.1.2).

3.4   Pronouns

3.4.1   *Personal pronouns*

Table 3.1 shows that the major difference between the personal pronoun sys-

tems of Dutch and English concerns the second person pronouns. English has only one second person pronoun (*you*). Dutch has a weak–stressed form (*je*) and employs a special form (*jou*) to distinguish between subjective and objective case in the singular. Dutch also has special forms to express the singular–plural contrast (*jij–jou/jullie*) and special forms to express solidarity or intimacy (*jij–jou–jullie*) and distance or politeness(*U*). On the use of the personal pronouns in English see 2.3.9.

	Singular		Plural	
	subjective case	objective case	subjective case	objective case
1st person	*ik* I	*mij, me* me	*wij, we* we	*ons* us
2nd person	*jij, je, U* you	*jou, je, U* you	*jullie, U* you	
3rd person	masc. *hij* *he*	*hem* him	*zij, ze* they	*hen, hun, ze* them
	fem. *zij, ze* *she*	*haar, ze* her		
	neuter *het* *it*			

Table 3.1

Note that certain verbs in English do not require a direct object where Dutch has *het*:

I don't remember	– Ik herinner het me niet
I'll tell you	– Ik zal het je vertellen
I'll ask him	– Ik zal het hem vragen
I understand	– Ik begrijp het
Why don't you try?	– Waarom probeer je het niet?
Let me explain	– Laat me het uitleggen

Do you mind?	– Vind je het erg?
He doesn't know	– Hij weet het niet

As a rule English uses the objective rather than the subjective case of the personal pronouns when they do not function as the subject of the sentence:

I saw it was them	– Ik zag dat zij het waren
It's me	– Ik ben het
It's us	– Wij zijn het
Who, me?	– Wie, ik?
Not me	– Ik niet

The Dutch third person plural personal pronoun *zij*, when followed by a relative clause, corresponds to English *those*:

Those who wish to take part	– Zij die wensen deel te nemen
should register now	moeten zich nu laten inschrijven

On Dutch *er* and its English equivalents see 3.4.9.

   On constructions where Dutch has a personal pronoun but English an independent possessive (*vrienden van mij*/*friends of mine*) see 3.4.4.

3.4.2 –self pronouns

–self pronouns have two main uses in English: they are either reflexive or emphatic. When used reflexively, a *–self* pronoun replaces a coreferential noun phrase in the same clause with which it agrees in person, number and gender. In the first and second persons Dutch uses the objective case of the personal pronouns (*me, je*) or *–zelf* forms (*mezelf, jezelf*). In the third person (singular and plural) Dutch has *zich* or *zichzelf*. Cf.:

I've cut myself	– Ik heb me/mezelf gesneden
Did you hurt yourself?	– Heb je je/jezelf pijn gedaan?
They introduced themselves	– Ze stelden zich/zichzelf voor

After local prepositions English uses personal pronouns (rather than *–self* pronouns) reflexively:

He looked in front of him	– Hij keek voor zich
She put it beside her	– Ze zette het naast zich neer

Note the translation of *zich* in:

| He had no money on him | – Hij had geen geld bij zich |
| Everyone for himself | – Ieder voor zich |

Quite a few verbs are reflexive in Dutch, but not in English. Examples:

to be wrong	– zich vergissen	to move	– zich bewegen
to be bored	– zich vervelen	to retire	– zich terugtrekken
to wonder	– zich afvragen	to look forward to	– zich verheugen op
to worry	– zich zorgen maken	to surrender	– zich overgeven
to remember	– zich herinneren	to oversleep	– zich verslapen
to imagine	– zich verbeelden	to venture	– zich wagen
to feel	– zich voelen	to disperse	– zich verspreiden
to join	– zich aansluiten bij	to resist	– zich verzetten
to settle	– zich vestigen	to register	– zich inschrijven

–self pronouns are also used emphatically in English. They always follow the word they emphasize. The Dutch equivalent is *zelf*, which may follow or precede the word it emphasizes. Cf.:

| I saw it myself | – Ik heb het zelf gezien |
| She did not turn up herself | – Zelf kwam ze niet opdagen |

Note, finally, that in English it is possible to use *–self* pronouns in coordinated phrases and after prepositions such as *like* and *except*. Dutch has personal pronouns:

John and myself	– Jan en ik
people like yourself/you	– mensen zoals jij
everyone except himself/him	– iedereen behalve hij

3.4.3   Demonstrative pronouns

English has two demonstrative pronouns that are marked for singular (*this* and *that*) and two that are marked for plural (*these* and *those*). Dutch has special

forms in the singular for *de*–words (*deze* and *die*) and for *het*–words (*dit* and *dat*). On the use of the demonstrative pronouns in English see 2.3.9. The various forms are listed in Table 3.2.

	Singular		Plural	
English	*this*	*that*	*these*	*those*
Dutch	*deze, dit*	*die, dat*	*deze*	*die*

Table 3.2

Dutch also has pronominal compounds consisting of the adverbs *hier* or *daar*, followed by a preposition: *hierover, daarvoor*, etc. The members of these compounds are often separable. The English equivalent is a prepositional phrase with a demonstrative pronoun. Cf.:

> English
> preposition + *this/these*
> preposition + *that/those*
>
> Dutch
> *hier* + preposition
> *daar* + preposition

Examples:

When are we going to talk about this?	– Wanneer gaan we hierover praten?
He doesn't pay any attention to this	– Hij besteedt hier geen aandacht aan
It is too late for that	– Daarvoor is het te laat
What are you going to do with those?	– Wat ga je daarmee doen?

In both languages a demonstrative pronoun can be used dependently (that is, followed by a noun) as well as independently.

Dependent use:

This exercise is difficult	– Deze oefening is moeilijk
Do you know those girls?	– Ken je die meisjes?

Independent use:

This is my wife	– Dit is mijn vrouw
That's the end of the film	– Dat is het einde van de film
Are these your children?	– Zijn dit uw kinderen?
Those are submarines	– Dat zijn duikboten

The examples show that demonstrative pronouns are used deictically (that is, to point to something) or anaphorically (that is, to refer back). The reference is either to what is near or to what is distant. Note that in the last two examples English, unlike Dutch, has concord of number.

In informal style *this* and *these* are used to express interest and familiarity, for example in order to introduce a joke. Dutch does not use a demonstrative pronoun in these contexts:

| I'm standing at the bar and this little man comes up to me | – Ik sta bij de bar en een klein mannetje komt naar me toe |
| There were these two Irishmen | – Er waren eens twee Ieren |

The Dutch pronouns *die* and *dat* can be used in constructions where English has

1. *that/those* in formal style:

| This problem is more serious than that we discussed yesterday | – Dit probleem is ernstiger dan dat wat we gisteren besproken hebben |
| Your books are more expensive than those I bought | – Jouw boeken zijn duurder dan die ik gekocht heb |

2. a genitive construction (with an ellipted noun) or an independent possessive pronoun:

| I marked your essay before your brother's | – Ik heb jouw opstel nagekeken vóór dat van je broer |
| She looks after her own children as well as his | – Ze zorgt voor haar eigen kinderen en voor die van hem |

3. *so, do so, so do* and *so...do* (see 3.4.8 and 6.6.2).

4. *the one/ the ones* (see 3.4.8 and 6.6.2).

In Dutch the pronoun *dat* can also be used to refer to a preceding sentence. The English equivalents are:

1. *that* or *this*:

I've lost my watch. – That's a pity	– Ik heb mijn horloge verloren. – Dat is jammer
He's not coming. – That/This was to be expected	– Hij komt niet. – Dat was te verwachten
Who told you this?	– Wie heeft je dat verteld?

2. a sentence or clause with a form of the pro–verb *do*, or a combination of *do* + *that* or *do* + *it*, used as a substitute for part of a preceding sentence. Dutch has the verb *doen*, preceded or followed by *dat*. Cf.:

Who repaired the car? – I did	– Wie heeft de auto gerepareerd? – Dat heb ik gedaan
Shall I invite Sally? – No, George will do that	– Zal ik Sally uitnodigen? – Nee, dat doet George
The Russians sent a woman into space, but the Americans did it, too	– De Russen stuurden een vrouw de ruimte in, maar de Amerikanen deden dat ook

Note that *do that* and *do it* cannot be used as substitutes for a relational verb (such as *to own*), a verb of cognition (such as *to believe*) or a verb of bodily sensation (such as *to feel*). The only possible pro–form for these types of verbs is *do*. Cf.:

Fred owns a Rolls Royce. – At least he did last year	– Fred heeft een Rolls Royce. – Tenminste, hij had er een verleden jaar
Does her husband believe that story? – I suppose he does	– Gelooft haar man dat verhaal? – Ik neem aan van wel
Do you feel depressed? – I do	– Voelt U zich depressief? – Ja

3. zero, after certain verbs, such as *to know, to remember*, etc.:

I know	– Dat weet ik
I remember	– Ik herinner me dat
He's told me	– Dat heeft hij me verteld
I don't mind	– Dat vind ik niet erg
I understand	– Dat begrijp ik

3.4.4   *Possessive pronouns*

English has two sets of possessive pronouns: dependent and independent. On the use of the possessive pronouns in English see 2.3.9.

The dependent possessives (*my, your*, etc.) function as determiners in the structure of the noun phrase, as they do in Dutch. The main differences between English and Dutch are the following:

1. in the second person English has only one pronoun: *your*. Dutch has special pronouns to express solidarity (*je, jouw, jullie*) and polite distance (*Uw*).

2. English has three third person singular possessives: *his, her* and *its*. Dutch has only two: *zijn* and *haar*. The form *its* corresponds to either *zijn* or *haar* in Dutch. Cf.:

this word and its compounds	– dit woord en zijn samenstellingen
the government and its foreign policy	– de regering en haar buitenlandse politiek

3. colloquial constructions like *Jan z'n fiets* correspond to genitives in English:

John's bike	– Jan z'n fiets
Paula's parents	– Paula d'r ouders

4. instead of a possessive pronoun + noun English also has a construction consisting of *the* + noun + *of* + personal pronoun, often to express emotions such as irritation or surprise. In the last two examples the *of*–construction is obligatory.

The stupidity of him is amazing	– Zijn domheid is verbazingwekkend
Her behaviour will be the death of me	– Haar gedrag wordt nog eens mijn dood
On the face of it her story sounds convincing	– Op het eerste gezicht klinkt haar verhaal overtuigend

The independent possessives (*mine, yours*, etc.) have the following equivalents in Dutch:

1. *de/het + mijne, jouwe*, etc.:

her children and mine	– haar kinderen en de mijne
your house and ours	– jouw huis en het onze

2. *van* + personal pronoun. There are two possibilities in English:

   a. an independent possessive only:

This car is mine	– Deze auto is van mij
Are these gloves yours?	– Zijn deze handschoenen van U?

   b. *of* + independent possessive:

that husband of hers	– die man van haar
friends of ours	– vrienden van ons

3. *die/dat van* + personal pronoun:

my solicitor and his	– mijn advocaat en die van hem
your life and hers	– jouw leven en dat van haar

On cases where Dutch has a possessive pronoun, but English requires the definite article see 3.3.2.2.

3.4.5   Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses, that is, clauses that function as postmodifiers to noun phrase heads (on relative clauses see 2.4.2.1 and 3.3.5.1). Relative pronouns refer back to a preceding noun phrase or sentence, called the antecedent. The various forms are listed in Table 3.3.

In English the choice of a relative pronoun depends on whether the pronoun refers to an antecedent with personal or non–personal reference, and also on whether the relative clause is restrictive or non–restrictive (see 2.4.2.1). The pronouns *who* and *whom* usually have personal reference, *which* has non–personal reference, while *whose* and *that* can have both personal and non–personal reference. All relative pronouns in English can refer to singular as well as plural antecedents.

The form *who* must be used when it functions as the subject of the relative clause. *Who* is also commonly used in the function of direct object or prepositional complement when the preposition appears in clause–final position. *Whom* must be used after a preposition. Its use in other functions is rather formal.

Who, whose, whom and *which* can be used in both restrictive and non–restrictive relative clauses. *That* can only be used in restrictive relative clauses. It

can have personal as well as non–personal reference, can function as subject, direct object and subject attribute, but cannot be preceded by a preposition. Note that in restrictive relative clauses the relative pronoun can be left out (in that case we speak of the zero relative pronoun: ø), provided it does not function as the subject of the relative clause and is not preceded by a preposition.

English	Dutch		
singular and plural	singular		plural
	de-words	*het*-words	
who(m) *which* *that*/ø: in restrictive relative clauses only	*die, wie*	*dat, wat*	*die, wie*
whose	*wiens/wier*		*wier*
what	*wat*		
which (sentential antecedent)	*wat/hetgeen*		

Table 3.3

Examples:

The President, who arrived in Panama yesterday, looked tired	– De President, die gisteren in Panama aankwam, zag er vermoeid uit
I don't trust people who/ that are ambitious	– Ik heb geen vertrouwen in mensen die eerzuchtig zijn
The girl (who(m)) I was talking to is my secretary	– Het meisje waarmee ik stond te praten is mijn secretaresse
They are the readers for whom this book was written	– Zij zijn de lezers voor wie dit boek geschreven is
The statement (which/that) he made was new	– De verklaring die hij aflegde was nieuw
The house (which/that) they built in Switzerland must have cost a fortune	– Het huis dat ze in Zwitserland hebben gebouwd moet een fortuin hebben gekost

The Dutch examples show that the choice of a relative pronoun is determined by different factors in Dutch than in English. First, it depends on whether the antecedent is a *de*–word or a *het*–word. A singular *de*–word requires *die*, a singular *het*–word requires *dat*: *de verklaring die*/*het huis dat*. Secondly, the choice is determined by whether the antecedent is singular or plural. Plural antecedents in Dutch always require *die*: *het huis dat*/ *de huizen die*.

The relative pronouns in both languages have genitive forms. Dutch *wiens* is chiefly used to refer back to singular nouns that refer to males. *Wier* (which is mainly restricted to written language) refers back to singular nouns denoting females as well as to plural nouns. In all cases English has *whose*. Cf.:

the man whose wife was killed…	– de man wiens vrouw werd gedood…
the lady whose car was stolen…	– de dame wier auto werd gestolen…
parents whose children study at university…	– ouders wier kinderen aan de universiteit studeren…

When used without an antecedent, Dutch relative *wie* corresponds to *who(m)* in sentences containing verbs like *choose, please* and *want*. Otherwise Dutch *wie* corresponds to *whoever, anybody who/that, anyone who/that* or *those who*:

Sylvia can marry who(m) she pleases	– Sylvia kan trouwen met wie ze wil
Whoever claims that is out of his mind	– Wie dat beweert is niet goed bij zijn verstand
Anybody who saw the accident is asked to get in touch with the police	– Wie het ongeluk heeft gezien wordt verzocht zich met de politie in verbinding te stellen
Those who are interested can come to the meeting	– Wie geïnteresseerd zijn kunnen naar de vergadering komen

Relative *wat*, when used without an antecedent, corresponds to *what* (= 'that which') in English:

What struck me was that he wasn't wearing a tie	– Wat me opviel was dat hij geen das droeg

Note that English has *that* (rather than *what*) in:

all (that) he said	– alles wat hij zei
something (that) you should know	– iets wat jullie moeten weten
nothing that concerns us	– niets wat ons aangaat

Relative *which* can also be used to refer to a preceding sentence in English. Dutch has *wat* or *hetgeen*:

He is said to have made a full   – Men zegt dat hij een volledige
    confession, which surprises   bekentenis heeft afgelegd, wat/
    me   hetgeen me verbaast

In the function subject attribute English uses the relative pronoun *that* (in restrictive relative clauses) and *which* (in non–restrictive relative clauses). The Dutch equivalents are *die* and *wat*, respectively. Cf.:

I believed him. Fool that I was   – Ik geloofde hem. Dwaas die ik was
She looked like a beautician,   – Ze zag er uit als een schoonheids-
    which she was   specialiste, wat ze ook was

Dutch *wie...ook* and *wat...ook* correspond to English *whoever* and *whatever*, respectively. *Whichever* indicates that a choice can be made. Cf.:

Whoever invites you, don't go   – Wie jou ook uitnodigt, ga niet
Whatever he says, he is not to   – Wat hij ook zegt, hij is niet te
    be trusted   vertrouwen
Take whichever you want   – Neem maar welke je hebben wil

On the use of compound forms (such as *waarmee, waarvan*, etc.) in Dutch see 3.3.5.1.

3.4.6   Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns introduce questions (both direct and indirect questions):

What did he say?   – Wat zei hij?
She asked me what he had said   – Ze vroeg me wat hij gezegd had

The various forms are listed in Table 3.4.

English	Dutch
who(m)	*wie*
whose	*wiens*
what	*wat* *welk(e)*
which	*wie* *wat* *welk(e)*

Table 3.4

On the use of the interrogative pronouns in English, see 2.3.9.

Interrogative *whom*, like relative *whom*, must be used after a preposition. Otherwise its use is restricted to formal language. Cf.:

To whom did you give the — Aan wie heb je het boek gegeven?
   book?
Who(m) did they appoint? — Wie hebben ze benoemd?

Two interrogative pronouns deserve special mention: *which* and *whose*. *Which* is used to indicate that a selection is made from a specified set. *Which* lacks number contrast, has both personal and non–personal reference and can be used dependently as well as independently. Interrogative *which* corresponds to Dutch *wie, wat* or *welk(e)*:

Which of your brothers studies — Wie van je broers studeert in
   at Cambridge?   Cambridge?
Which records have been — Welke platen zijn in prijs verlaagd?
   reduced?

On *which*, followed by *one/ones*, see 3.4.8.

Whose can be used dependently as well as independently. Dutch *wiens* is used dependently only:

Whose gloves are these?/ — Wiens handschoenen zijn dit?
   Whose are these gloves?

Interrogative *what* also lacks number contrast. It corresponds either to Dutch *wat* or *welk(e)*:

What happened?	– Wat is er gebeurd?
What size do you take?	– Welke maat heeft U?

In both languages *WH*–questions can be introduced by a preposition. In colloquial English the preposition usually occurs in sentence–final position, however. This is impossible in Dutch, except in *WH*–questions introduced by *waar*. Cf.:

To whom did you lend your bike?/Who did you lend your bike to?	– Aan wie heb je je fiets geleend?

Dutch *WH*–questions cannot be introduced by a preposition followed by *wat*. Instead, Dutch has compound forms, consisting of *waar* + preposition: *waaraan*, *waarover*, etc. The elements of these compounds are separable. English has *what*, the preposition usually occurring in sentence–final position. Cf.:

What are you thinking of?	– Waaraan denk je?/Waar denk je aan?
What does this refer to?	– Waarop slaat dit?/Waar slaat dit op?

The compounds *who ever/whoever*, *what ever/whatever* and *which ever/whichever* are used to express surprise, impatience, irritation, etc. Dutch uses interrogative pronouns together with adverbs such as *toch* or equivalent expressions like *in 's hemelsnaam*:

Who ever told you that?	– Wie heeft je dat in 's hemelsnaam verteld?
What ever do you mean?	– Wat bedoel je toch?

What kind of/what sort of correspond to Dutch *wat voor (een)*:

What kind/sort of car do you drive?	– In wat voor auto rij jij?
What kind/sort of books do you read?	– Wat voor boeken lees je?

English *what* corresponds to Dutch *hoe* in:

What's your name?	– Hoe heet je?
What's the time?	– Hoe laat is het?
What was the film like?	– Hoe was de film?

3.4.7 Reciprocal pronouns

Like their English counterparts *each other* and *one another*, the Dutch reciprocal pronouns *elkaar* and *mekaar* refer back to a plural (or coordinated) subject and have a genitive form:

| The two brothers resemble each other/one another | – De twee broers lijken op elkaar/mekaar |
| They respect each other's freedom | – Ze respecteren elkaars vrijheid |

Note that English has a *self*–pronoun in:

| People who quarrel among themselves... | – Mensen die onder elkaar ruzie maken... |

3.4.8 *So* and *one*

So

So can be used as a substitute word to refer to (part of) a preceding sentence (see 2.3.9). *So* is either used on its own or in combination with *do, be, have* or a modal auxiliary. For further details see 6.6.2.

One

One has several uses in English. When used as a pro–form, it can replace an indefinite noun phrase or a noun phrase head. For further details see 6.6.2.

   One can also be used in the meanings 'people in general' and 'the sort of person'. The Dutch analogues are *men* and *iemand die*, respectively:

| One should not be too pessimistic about the future | – Men moet niet te pessimistisch zijn over de toekomst |
| She is not one to be taken in | – Zij is niet iemand die zich laat beetnemen |

Note that Dutch *men* need not include the speaker or the addressee. English *one* always does. Cf.:

In the Victorian Age people were very prudish (*not*: *One was very prudish)	– In de tijd van Victoria was men zeer preuts

Dutch sentences with *men* often have passive equivalents in English:

Cars should not be left unattended here	– Auto's moet men hier niet onbeheerd achterlaten
He is said to have committed suicide	– Men zegt dat hij zelfmoord heeft gepleegd

3.4.9   *Dutch* er *and its English equivalents*

Dutch *er* can be used both as an adverb and as a pronoun (or pronominal adverb).

When used as an adverb, *er* denotes place or direction (in the latter case it is accompanied by *heen*). In both meanings English has *there* (/ðeə/):

Do you know Berlin? Yes, I've been there	– Ken jij Berlijn? Ja, ik ben er geweest
We've decided to go there in the summer	– We hebben besloten er in de zomer heen te gaan

The use of pronominal *er* in Dutch is subject to a set of very complex rules. For the sake of simplicity we shall only deal with

1. existential sentences, in which Dutch *er*–constructions correspond to English *there*–constructions;
2. cases where Dutch has *er*, but English employs some other construction.

Dutch *er* corresponds to weak–stressed English *there* (/ðə/) in existential sentences:

There is a hair in my soup	– Er ligt een haar in mijn soep
There were many mistakes in your essay	– Er zaten veel fouten in je opstel
There seems to be some doubt about it	– Er schijnt enige twijfel over te bestaan

Dutch *er*–constructions do not correspond to English sentences with *there* in:

1. active sentences that have variants in Dutch in which *er* can be omitted. English has a non–existential construction:

Many shopkeepers went bankrupt	– Er gingen veel winkeliers failliet
Nobody listens to this programme	– Er luistert niemand naar dit programma
A silence fell on the room	– Er viel een stilte in de kamer
Since then a lot has changed	– Sindsdien is er veel veranderd
Who is coming tonight?	– Wie komt er vanavond?

2. sentences containing a numeral or a quantifier, in which *er* refers back to a preceding noun. The English equivalent is zero:

She's got five children and I've got three	– Zij heeft vijf kinderen en ik heb er drie
Do you want a cigarette? I've still got some	– Wil je een sigaret? Ik heb er nog een paar

3. sentences in which anaphoric *er* is followed by a preposition (for example *ervoor, eraan*). English has a preposition followed by a personal pronoun:

That's a beautiful piano. How much did you pay for it?	– Dat is een mooie piano. Hoeveel heb je ervoor betaald?
I had forgotten my appointment, but she reminded me of it	– Ik had mijn afspraak vergeten, maar zij herinnerde me eraan

Dutch *waar* in existential sentences corresponds to English *where there*:

Where there is no snow, you cannot ski	– Waar geen sneeuw is kun je niet skiën

In the examples below Dutch has *het* + intransitive verb, where English has an existential sentence:

There was a terrible fog	– Het mistte verschrikkelijk
There is a draught here	– Het tocht hier
There was a strong gale	– Het stormde erg
There was a hard frost last night	– Het vroor gisteravond hard

Note also the following miscellaneous cases:

It says in the paper that…   – Er staat in de krant dat…
There is no denying that…   – Het valt niet te ontkennen dat…
There is no getting away from it   – Er valt niet aan te ontkomen
There is no telling when he will   – Er valt niet te voorspellen wanneer
   arrive   hij aankomt

On the use of *er*–compounds before clauses in Dutch see 5.4.2.
  On *er* in passive sentences see 6.4.5 and 6.5.2.

4: VERBS AND VERB PHRASES

4.1   Introduction

As we have seen in 2.3.2 and 2.4.2.2, English verbs can be subdivided into (a) lexical or 'main' verbs and (b) auxiliaries. As Table 2.3 in 2.3.2 shows, lexical verbs may be intransitive, monotransitive, ditransitive or complex transitive, and they may be copulas. Auxiliaries fall into three classes: (a) primary auxiliaries, (b) modals and (c) semi–auxiliaries.

In 4.2 below we shall deal with the most important differences between English and Dutch verbs, in particular with the auxiliaries (4.2.2–4.2.4). In 4.3 we shall discuss the structure of the verb phrase and in 4.4–4.6 the verbal categories *tense, aspect* and *mood*.

4.2   Verbs

4.2.1   *English and Dutch verbs*

There are a few striking syntactic differences between English and Dutch verbs. In Dutch, for example, both lexical verbs and auxiliaries can occur on their own in a sentence. Thus, Dutch allows auxiliaries to occur without a lexical verb, as in *Het moet/kan/mag, Je zult, of je wilt of niet!*, or *Het mag niet van mijn vader*. English auxiliaries cannot occur on their own, except in cases where the lexical verb and other material accompanying it can be said to be elliptical. In such cases, the elliptical material is 'understood', and can be recovered from the preceding context. Examples are:

A: Who has broken the window?	– B: John has (broken the window)
A: Can you speak Danish?	– B: No, I can't (speak Danish)

All English auxiliaries are morphologically defective, in particular the modals, which have no *–s* form, no infinitive and no participles. The Dutch modals are: *kunnen, mogen, moeten, willen, zullen, durven* and *hoeven*. They are morphologically less defective than their English counterparts. See 4.2.3.

4.2.2   *The primary auxiliaries*

4.2.2.1   *Have*

Auxiliary *have* is used in English to denote *perfective aspect*; it helps to form the four perfect tenses mentioned in 2.4.2.2. Dutch, on the other hand, not only uses *hebben* to form the perfect, but also *zijn*. Some verbs in Dutch require *hebben* as an auxiliary of the perfect, others *zijn* (e.g. *Ik heb Jan gisteren gezien* as opposed to *Ik ben Jan gisteren tegengekomen*). Sometimes either *hebben* or *zijn* can be used with the same verb, but then there is usually a difference in meaning (e.g. *Ik heb gisteren de hele middag gewandeld* as opposed to *Ik ben gisteren naar de stad gewandeld*).

Consider the following Dutch sentences and their equivalents in English:

How many students *have* signed the petition?	– Hoeveel studenten *hebben* de petitie ondertekend?
How many prisoners *have* escaped?	– Hoeveel gevangenen *zijn* er ontsnapt?
Have you walked all the way home?	– *Ben* je helemaal naar huis gewandeld?
He *has* been able to come just in time	– Hij *is/heeft* nog net op tijd kunnen komen

4.2.2.2   *Be*

Auxiliary *be* in English is used for two different purposes: (1) for the progressive, and (2) for the passive (see 2.3.2). We shall return to the use of the progressive (*be* + *–ing* participle) and the passive (*be* + *–ed* participle) in 4.5 and 6.4, respectively. For the moment, it is important to note that Dutch has no progressive aspect like English; instead, Dutch uses a simple tense form or expressions like *bezig zijn te, aan het … zijn*, etc. to indicate that an action is viewed as being in progress. So *Hij poetst zijn schoenen/Hij is bezig zijn schoenen te poetsen/Hij is zijn schoenen aan het poetsen* are all appropriate responses to a question like 'Wat is hij aan het doen?' ('What's he doing?'). The three Dutch structures correspond to the progressive in English: *He is polishing his shoes*. In Dutch, it is impossible to say: **Hij is poetsende zijn schoenen* or **Hij is zijn schoenen poetsende*. There are a few fixed expressions in Dutch which

resemble a progressive, such as *De zaak is nog hangende* (*The matter is still pending*), but these are exceptional.

Dutch learners often fail to use the progressive in contexts where English requires a progressive (this is what one would naturally expect on the basis of mother tongue influence). But students also tend to over–use the progressive in contexts where the non–progressive is required in English (that is, they over–generalize the use of the progressive form). A fairly common error, for example, is a statement such as: *My friends and I are staying at the same camping–site every summer*. This is incorrect because the utterance is meant to refer to a regular habit, not to an activity in progress or to a temporary situation. As we shall see in 4.5, the use of the English progressive is subject to a variety of restrictions. In general, it can only be used when reference is made to actions in progress or to temporary situations or activities. Consider, for example, the contrasts between the following English sentence–pairs:

> I am staying at the Hilton this time, not at the Sheraton
> Whenever I go to Brussels I stay at the Hilton
>
> Mary is attending lectures again
> Mary attends all lectures; she never misses one

As a passive auxiliary, *be* combines with the *–ed* participle to form the passive voice. Passive *be* corresponds to Dutch *worden* in the non–perfect tenses; in the perfect tenses, however, English has *have been*, and Dutch has *zijn*. Passive sentences are discussed in chapter 6 (section 6.4).

4.2.2.3   Do

Auxiliary *do* can serve as a means of distinguishing between English lexical verbs and auxiliaries: lexical verbs require *do* in the formation of negatives, interrogatives, 'coded' sentences and emphatic sentences, whereas auxiliaries do not. Beginning learners are sometimes heard to say: *He likes not pop music*, instead of *He does not like pop music*. When auxiliary *do* is used, it acquires all the necessary features of tense, mood, number and person, and is followed by an infinitive without *to*. In other words, the morphological properties expressed by the *–s* of the verb *likes* in *He likes pop music* are transferred to *do* in:

> He does not like pop music
> Does he like pop music?

Does he?
He does like pop music

Not, of course, *He don't likes pop music* or *He doesn't likes pop music*, etc.
Auxiliary *do* only has the finite forms *do, does* and *did*.

In this section we illustrate the use of auxiliary *do* in 'coded' sentences only.
On the use of *do* in negative and interrogative sentences see 6.2 and 6.3.

The term 'code' is used to refer to sentences in English in which a lexical verb
is later 'picked up' by an auxiliary, in the same way that a noun phrase may be
'picked up' by a pronoun. Code (sometimes also called 'avoidance of repeti-
tion') is found mainly in the following kinds of sentence:

(a) sentences which contain *...and so...*:
      John can speak Danish and so can Mary
      John speaks Danish and so does Mary
(b) tag–questions (cf. 2.5.4.3), such as:
      You can swim, can't you?
      You saw him, didn't you?
(c) reply questions, such as:
      (John can speak Danish) Can he?
      (John speaks Danish) Does he?
(d) short answers, such as:
      (Can you swim?) Yes, I can
      (Did you see him?/You saw him?) Yes, I did

The important point in the above examples is that the auxiliary of the first part
(*can* in our examples) is repeated in the second part, and when there is no aux-
iliary in the first part, auxiliary *do* must be supplied in the second part (in the
last example the form *did* was already required for the question with inversion;
the question without inversion (*You saw him?*) does not take auxiliary *do*).

Consider also the following English sentences with their Dutch equivalents:

Peter likes fish and so does Jean   – Peter houdt van vis en Jean ook

Peter likes fish, doesn't he?   – Peter houdt van vis, hè?

Peter likes fish. – Does he?   – Peter houdt van vis. – O ja?

Do you like fish? – Yes, I do   – Hou jij van vis? – Ja

The copula *be* behaves like an auxiliary under code, e.g. *Is he a teacher? Yes, he is*. Not: **Yes, he does*).

4.2.3   The modals

The *modals* in English are: *can/could, may/might, must, shall/should, will/ would*. There are also 'marginal' modals: *dare, need, ought to*, and *used to*. In one way or another modals express the speaker's opinion or his attitude. Sentences containing a modal may, for example, denote possibility, permission, obligation, prohibition, logical necessity, volition or intention, as in:

> It may rain this afternoon (possibility)
> You must leave tomorrow (obligation)
> John must have broken the vase (logical necessity/assumption)
> I will meet you at the station at six (intention/promise)

Modals differ from lexical verbs in that they constitute a closed class of verbs which cannot normally occur on their own (except under 'code'). They differ from the primary auxiliaries *do, be* and *have* (4.2.2) in that they have no *–s* form, no infinitive and no participles.

The Dutch modals are morphologically less defective than their English counterparts. *Mogen*, for example, has the forms *mag, mogen, mocht, mochten, moge, gemogen/gemoogd/gemocht*, but the imperative (**mag*) and the present participle (**mogend*) are lacking. Dutch modals are irregular, but they have a fairly full morphology. Note that in Dutch, too, modals can occur on their own, but it is an open question whether in all such cases we must assume ellipsis of a lexical verb. Compare:

You will have to (do it), whether you like it or not	– Je moet, of je wilt of niet!
That is quite possible	– Dat kan heel goed
His father won't let him go to the party	– Hij mag van zijn vader niet naar het feest
He always wants people to do it his way	– Het moet en het zal op zijn manier

Since English modals have no infinitive or participles, they cannot follow another auxiliary. Consequently they always occupy the first position in a verb phrase, preceding other auxiliaries and lexical verbs. In the sentence:

The prisoner should have been questioned by the police

should is a modal, *have* and *be* are primary auxiliaries (of the perfect and the passive, respectively, and always occurring in this order), and *questioned* is the lexical verb. Dutch modals, on the other hand, quite frequently occur in combination or they may follow primary auxiliaries (e.g. *zou (moeten) mogen, had (moeten) kunnen* and *had gemogen*). For example:

It ought not to be allowed, but according to the rules it is	– Het zou niet moeten mogen, maar de regels laten het wel toe
I would have been able to come if you had asked me before	– Ik had wel kunnen komen, als je het mij eerder gevraagd had
My father would never have allowed me to do such things when I was your age	– Zoiets had ik van mijn vader nooit gemogen toen ik zo oud was als jij
She has had to write her essay all over again	– Ze heeft haar werkstuk helemaal opnieuw moeten schrijven

Suppletive forms

To compensate for the lack of non–finite forms, English employs *suppletive* forms for some of the uses of its modals. For example, *can* and *could* in their permission sense have *be able to*, *be allowed to* and *be permitted to* as suppletive forms. The modals *may* and *might* also have *be allowed to* and *be permitted to/have permission to* as suppletive forms, and *must*, *should*, *ought to* in their obligation sense have *have to*, *be obliged to* and *be forced to*. The English suppletive forms occur mainly in the perfect and future tenses, and in non–finite constructions (e.g. *Not being able to…, Having been permitted to…*).

Compare the English and Dutch examples:

Not being able to carry the suitcase herself, she asked the porter to help her	– Omdat zij de koffer niet zelf kon dragen/Niet in staat de koffer zelf te dragen, vroeg zij de portier haar te helpen
So far they have been permitted/allowed to see the patient twice	– Tot nu toe hebben zij de patient tweemaal mogen zien
In the new theatre smoking will be forbidden/ prohibited	– In de nieuwe schouwburg zal niet gerookt mogen worden/zal roken verboden zijn
He had to/was forced to stay there against his will	– Hij moest daar tegen zijn zin blijven/Hij werd gedwongen daar tegen zijn zin te blijven

Modals express the speaker's opinion or his attitude. Thus, a speaker who says: *They may come tomorrow* means that, in his view, it is possible that they will come tomorrow. In other words, the modal *may* here indicates 'possibility'. However, another meaning of this modal is 'permission', so that *They may come tomorrow* can also be interpreted, in the appropriate context, as 'They are allowed/permitted to come tomorrow' or 'I give them permission to come tomorrow'. In the same way, other modals can express necessity, intention, willingness, obligation, prohibition and the like.

As the above example with *may* illustrates, modals can have more than one meaning. Strictly speaking, we should not therefore be talking about the meaning of each modal but about the different meanings (or *uses*, or *senses*) of each modal.

In general, it is possible to distinguish two main types of modal meaning: (a) a modality which involves the speaker's personal assessment of what he is saying, indicating whether he regards it as certain, probable, possible, doubtful, etc. (e.g. possibility *may* in the example above) and (b) a modality which has to do with the granting or asking of permission, with imposing obligation, with guaranteeing, with intending to do something, etc. (e.g. permission *may* in the example above). We shall see below that there are a few syntactic differences between modals expressing these two types of modality. In what follows we shall discuss each of the English modal auxiliaries separately, together with their Dutch equivalents.

4.2.3.1   Can

English *can* and the forms of Du. *kunnen* are mainly used to express (a) possibility, (b) permission and (c) ability.

A. Possibility

This use of *can* indicates that there is a 'theoretical possibility' that something will happen or that something is true (e.g. *These gates can be closed in case of riots* and *Swans can be dangerous*). The speaker does not mean here that something is actually likely to happen, but only that something is generally or theoretically possible. In general statements of this kind, the modal *can* can often be replaced by *sometimes* (e.g. *Swans are sometimes dangerous*). Examples:

This road can be very slippery in winter	– Deze weg kan in de winter zeer glad zijn
You can hurt yourself badly this way	– Je kunt je op deze manier lelijk bezeren

You can buy a good second–hand Rolls Royce for less than 2,000 pounds	– Je kunt voor onder de 2000 pond een goede tweedehands Rolls Royce kopen

In positive statements, possibility *can* simply expresses that something is possible, without indicating that there is a chance that it will actually happen. To express the chances of something actually happening (i.e. 'factual possibility') English normally prefers *may, might* or *could* to *can* (see 4.2.3.2–4.2.3.4 below).

On the whole, possibility *can* is less common in positive statements than in negative and interrogative sentences. In negative sentences, *cannot* means 'It is impossible that'; in questions *can* means 'Is it possible that...?'. Consider the following examples:

This can't be true	– Dit kan niet waar zijn
He can't be studying very hard if he goes to parties every night	– Hij kan onmogelijk erg hard studeren als hij iedere avond naar een feestje gaat
She can't have broken the vase	– Ze kan de vaas niet gebroken hebben
Can I be dreaming?	– Kan het zijn dat ik droom?
Can it have happened while I was away?	– Kan het gebeurd zijn terwijl ik weg was?

This use of *can* sometimes serves to make suggestions like *Can we meet again soon?* or *We can always ask Philip for help*. Sometimes these 'suggestions' are really offers, requests or orders, as in *I can buy you a drink if you like* or *Can you wait here, please?*

The past tense form of possibility *can* is *could*. In positive statements, it expresses what was theoretically possible in the past, e.g. *In the 19th century journeys to Africa could be dangerous*. In negative and interrogative sentences possibility *could* sounds less certain or definitive than *can*, e.g. *Couldn't it be that she loves you?* and *Could I simply be dreaming this?*

This use of *could* denoting possibility is not to be confused with the use of *can* plus perfect infinitive, which indicates the possibility of an event or activity in the past. For example:

One of the guards can have helped the prisoner to escape	– Een van de bewakers kan de gevangene geholpen hebben te ontsnappen
Can/could I have been dreaming?	– Kan het zijn dat ik gedroomd heb?

B. Permission

Can expressing permission is usually more colloquial than *may*. Compare: *You can use my phone if you like* and *You may use my phone if you like.* In formal contexts, *can* is usually avoided, and *may* is used instead (e.g. *Students may register in the first week of term*). However, with a first–person subject in questions both *may* and *can* are used, e.g. *May/Can I use your phone?* (cf. *may* below). Dutch *kunnen* is also less formal than *mogen* when denoting permission. Examples:

You can use my phone if you like	– Je kunt mijn telefoon gebruiken als je wilt
You can go home now	– Je kunt nu wel naar huis (gaan)
Can I borrow your dictionary, please?	– Kan ik je woordenboek even lenen?

The negative counterpart of permission is 'prohibition', which can be expressed by means of *cannot/can't*, e.g.:

You can't smoke in here	– Je mag hier niet roken

C. Ability

This use of *can* (Du. *kunnen*) expresses the ability or capacity of the subject of the sentence to do something. The meaning is 'be able to' or 'be capable of'. The past tense form of ability *can* is *could* (see 4.2.3.2). In questions, the use of *can* in the ability sense often amounts to a request, e.g. *Can you pass me the salt, please?* The suppletive form most often used is *be able to* (Du. *in staat zijn te*), e.g. *You will be able to drive in less than three months.* Consider:

Can you play baseball?	– Kan je honkballen?
He can't speak a word of Dutch	– Hij spreekt geen woord Nederlands
She can carry that suitcase herself	– Zij kan die koffer zelf dragen

Apart from being used as a suppletive form of *can, be able to* also serves as a more formal synonym of *can* and *could* denoting ability.

He is now able to do this assignment all by himself (also: He can now...)	– Hij is nu in staat deze taak helemaal zelf uit te voeren
He is perfectly able to look after his own interests (also: He can perfectly well...)	– Hij is zeer goed in staat zijn eigen boontjes te doppen

| She was already able to read English when she was five (also: She could read...) | – Ze kon al Engels lezen toen ze vijf was |

Be able to is also used in the present or past tense to indicate not merely the subject's ability to do something, but also that he actually succeeded in doing something, or that he achieved something. In this case *be able to* refers to the actual performance or achievement (in the past usually a single actual act). *Be able to* may in this case be paraphrased by 'succeed in' or 'manage to'. Examples:

| By bulk buying W.H. Smith are able to cut prices on most of their articles by 20 per cent | – Door in het groot in te kopen kan W.H. Smith de prijzen van de meeste van zijn artikelen met 20 procent verlagen |
| In this way he was able to pay both his and his ex–wife's debts | – Op deze manier kon hij zowel zijn eigen schulden als die van zijn ex–vrouw afbetalen |

In examples like these the present tense forms of *be able to* may be replaced by *can*, but in many cases there is a change in implication: instead of referring to actual performance in the present, *can* often implies reference to the future (e.g. *In this way he can pay all his debts*, i.e. '...he will be able to...').

4.2.3.2   Could

Like *can*, *could* is used to express (a) possibility, (b) permission and (c) ability. *Could* is the past tense form of *can*, but in many cases it does not simply add past time reference to *can*. *Could* often occurs in reported speech.

A. Possibility

In this sense *could* refers to what was (theoretically) possible in the past (see *can* above, 4.2.3.1). For example:

This road could be very slippery before it was asphalted	– Deze weg kon zeer glad zijn voordat hij geasfalteerd werd
In the 19th century journeys to Africa could be dangerous	– In de 19e eeuw konden reizen naar Afrika gevaarlijk zijn
In those days you could be arrested for criticizing the Government	– In die tijd kon je worden gearresteerd voor het kritiseren van de regering

Possibility *could* also serves to make tentative suggestions, as in *Could we meet again soon?* or *We could ask Philip to help us*. As with *can*, these 'suggestions' are sometimes really offers, requests or orders. *Could* sounds more polite than *can*.

Unlike *can*, *could* is also used to express 'factual possibility':

It could rain this afternoon	– Het kon vanmiddag wel eens gaan regenen
If you do that, he could get very angry	– Als je dat doet, zou hij wel eens erg boos kunnen worden

Could here means 'It is (just about) possible that...'. It cannot be replaced by possibility *can* (cf. examples such as *This road can be very slippery in winter* in 4.2.3.1). Note that Dutch normally uses *kon* or *zou kunnen* as an equivalent for *could*. We shall see below that *may* and *might* can also express factual possibility (4.2.3.3–4.2.3.4).

B. Permission

Like *can*, *could* is often used in colloquial English to express permission. *Could* is more tentative than *can*, and sounds more natural in questions than in statements. Dutch uses *zou kunnen/mogen*, with or without adverbs like *misschien* or *even*. See also *might* below. Examples:

Could I borrow your dictionary, please?	– Zou ik je woordenboek even kunnen lenen?
Could I use your phone?	– Zou ik je telefoon misschien kunnen gebruiken?
Could we come in for a moment?	– Zouden wij even binnen mogen komen?

Could is sometimes used to report 'general permission', i.e. permission to do something at any time, e.g. *When he was young, he could go out every night while his sister had to stay at home*, or *I could use his phone whenever I liked*. Past permission is also expressed by *was/were allowed to*. For example:

I was allowed to use his phone whenever I liked	– Ik mocht zijn telefoon gebruiken wanneer ik maar wou

C. Ability

This use of *could* expresses the past ability of the subject of the sentence to do something. Examples:

| They could see something move in the distance | – Ze konden iets in de verte zien bewegen |
| He could lift that suitcase with one finger | – Hij kon die koffer met één vinger optillen |

As with *can*, the use of ability *could* in questions often amounts to a request, e.g. *Could you pass me the salt, please? Could* in this case sounds more polite than *can*.

Could normally denotes general ability in the past and so does the more formal construction *was/were able to*, e.g. *She could/was able to read when she was five*. However, the past tense forms of *be able to* can also indicate a single actual performance or achievement in the past. Thus, *He was able to pass all his tests last year* is correct, but **He could pass all his tests last year* is wrong. Here are some further examples of *was/were able to* denoting ability–with–actual–performance in the past:

| Only ten students were able to finish the exam within the time allowed | – Slechts tien studenten konden het examen binnen de toegestane tijd afkrijgen |
| He took a taxi and was just able to catch the 9 o'clock train | – Hij nam een taxi en kon de trein van 9 uur net halen |

Although *could* cannot usually replace *be able to* in these examples, we find that in negative statements both forms can occur without any difference in meaning: *He was unable to swim across the river/He could not swim across the river*, i.e. Du. 'Het is hem niet gelukt...'.

4.2.3.3   May

The modal *may* is used to express (a) possibility and (b) permission. The equivalent modals in Dutch are *kunnen* and *mogen*.

A. Possibility

Unlike *can*, which may denote 'theoretical possibility', *may* and its past tense form *might* are often used in positive statements to express 'factual possibility', i.e. the speaker indicates that there is a chance that something will actually happen, or be true. With possibility *may* there is usually a suggestion that a situation will perhaps occur, as in *It may rain tomorrow*. Apart from 'future possibility', *may* often denotes 'present possibility'. Dutch frequently uses *misschien* or *het kan zijn dat...*, instead of *kunnen*, to express the idea of factual possibility. Examples:

We may spend our holidays in Scotland next year	– We brengen volgend jaar onze vakantie misschien in Schotland door/Het kan zijn dat we…
The road may be slippery this afternoon	– De weg kan vanmiddag glad zijn
You may be right	– Je hebt misschien gelijk
He may be thinking that you did it	– Hij denkt misschien dat jij het gedaan hebt

The distinction between 'factual possibility' and 'theoretical possibility' (see *can* above) is not always clear–cut, but it may help to explain the difference between the following sentences:

(a) The gates may be closed in case of riots
(b) The gates can be closed in case of riots

The (a) sentence, with *may*, suggests that the situation referred to is regarded as a real possibility: *may* is to be paraphrased as 'It is possible that…'. On the other hand, the (b) sentence, with *can*, sounds more neutral, in that it merely expresses what can generally happen or what can be the case at any time: *can* is to be paraphrased as 'It is possible for…to…'.

In formal English it is possible to use *may* for both 'factual' and 'theoretical' possibility.

To express the possibility of an event or activity in the past, *may* + perfect infinitive is used instead of *can* + perfect infinitive, e.g.:

(a) We may have made a mistake
(b) *We can have made a mistake

And:

(a) I may have told you this before
(b) *I can have told you this before

On the other hand, possibility *may* is not used in questions and in negative sentences. *Can* is used instead, e.g. *Can he be serious about this?* ('Is it possible that…?'), not: **May he be serious about this?* Also: *He cannot be serious about this* ('It is impossible that…'), not: **He may not be serious about this.* The latter sentence is, of course, grammatically correct if it means: 'It is possible that he is not serious about this'.

B. Permission

May is used to express permission given by the speaker, e.g. *That will be all, James. You may go now* (formal). In informal English, *can* is usually preferred to *may*. *May* is often felt to sound distant and somewhat authoritarian, but in formal contexts it is also usually regarded as the more 'correct' and more polite form of the two (e.g. *Students may register in the first week of term*). In questions the addressee is asked to give permission, e.g. *May I go now*? (Compare: *Can I go now?* (4.2.3.1)). Here are some further examples with *may* of permission:

If you want to use my phone, you may do so	– Als je mijn telefoon wilt gebruiken, dan mag dat
You may stay here as long as you wish	– U mag hier zo lang blijven als U wenst
You may go as soon as your work is done	– Je mag gaan zodra je werk af is
You may take it from me that...	– Je mag van mij aannemen dat...

4.2.3.4 Might

Like *may*, *might* is used to express (a) possibility and (b) permission (see also *can/could* above). *Might* is the past tense form of *may* (4.2.3.3). *Might* often occurs in reported speech.

A. Possibility

Might normally denotes 'factual possibility'. It is more tentative than *may*. Examples:

It might rain this afternoon	– Het kon vanmiddag wel eens gaan regenen
We might spend our holidays in Scotland next year	– Wij brengen volgend jaar onze vakantie heel misschien in Schotland door/Het zou kunnen zijn dat...
If you did that, he might get very angry	– Als je dat zou doen, zou hij wel eens erg boos kunnen worden

B. Permission

Might in the permission sense is not very common. It is used in tentative or hes-

itant requests for permission, but not in statements to give permission. Permission *might* also occurs in reported speech. Examples:

Might I ask you a favour?	– Zou U mij een plezier willen doen?/Zou ik U iets mogen vragen?
He said to us that we might stay another day	– Hij zei tegen ons dat wij nog een dag mochten blijven

Dutch *mocht(en)* is commonly rendered in English by *be allowed/permitted to*:

No one was allowed/permitted to leave the barracks after sunset	– Niemand mocht de kazerne na zonsondergang verlaten

4.2.3.5. Must

English *must* is used to express (a) obligation and (b) logical necessity.

A. Obligation

This use of *must* expresses obligation or compulsion imposed by the speaker, e.g. *You must help me at once*, i.e. 'I want you to...'. The speaker may also wish to report what someone else or what some authority requires, e.g. *Students must register before the beginning of term*. In some cases the idea of obligation may be weakened to a suggestion, an invitation, e.g. *You must stay for another drink*, i.e. 'I would like you to...'. With a first–person subject, where the subject is also the speaker, the obligation seems self–imposed, e.g. *I must write two essays before the end of this month*.

Must is normally used in the present tense. In reported speech, however, *must* also functions as a past tense, e.g.:

He said I must help him	– Hij zei dat ik hem moest helpen

Suppletive forms are: *be obliged to* and *have (got) to*, but these forms also occur in the present tense as alternative expressions of obligation. Examples:

You must try and keep it to yourself	– Je moet het voor je proberen te houden
We must tell them what has happened	– We moeten hun vertellen wat er gebeurd is

I must write to him before the end of this week	– Ik moet hem voor het eind van deze week schrijven
They must leave at 6	– Ze moeten om 6 uur vertrekken
You will have to sleep on the couch tonight	– Je zult vannacht op de bank moeten slapen
He has (got) to go now/... is obliged to go now	– Hij moet nu gaan

In interrogative sentences with *must* the addressee is asked to say whether he wishes to impose an obligation or not, e.g. *Must I go there?*, *Must the gate be closed?*, or *At what time must we leave?* The negative forms *must not* and *mustn't* occur in sentences like *You must not use my phone while I am away* (Du. *mag niet*). Du. *niet hoeven* may be expressed by *need not, do not have to* or *be not obliged to*, e.g. *You need not/do not have to/are not obliged to go there*.

As noted above, *must* and *have (got) to* are often interchangeable as expressions of speaker–imposed obligation (or addressee–imposed obligation in questions). In many cases, however, the use of *have (got) to* has a strong implication that it is not the speaker/addressee who is involved, but that there are 'external circumstances' or 'outside factors' at work. For example, there is a difference between *You must be very careful with your money* and *You have (got) to be very careful with your money*, and also between *I must write two essays before the end of this month* and *I have (got) to write two essays before the end of this month*. The examples with *have (got) to* suggest that it is not the speaker's will that is involved, but some external force or authority.

The suppletive forms *be obliged to, have to*, and *have got to* are used in the past, perfect and future tenses, and also when *–ing* forms are required. *Have to* is more formal than *have got to*. *Have got to* has no non–finite forms, e.g. *I regret having to leave so early*, or *Having had to leave early, we missed John's after–dinner speech*. Not: **I regret having got to leave so early*.

B. Logical necessity

This use of *must* refers to what the speaker regards as the only logical conclusion that can be drawn. It means: 'Given certain evidence, there can be no other conclusion', e.g. *John must be the thief*. Besides *moeten*, Dutch often uses the adverbs *zeker* or *vast* in this case.

Must denoting logical necessity does not normally occur in negative or interrogative sentences (e.g. **John must not be the thief, *Must John be the thief?*). English, as we have seen, uses *can(not)* instead, e.g. *John cannot be the thief*, or *Can John be the thief?* (4.2.3.1). Further examples:

He must be feeling very bitter about what has happened	– Hij moet zich zeer verbitterd voelen over wat er gebeurd is
She must be over sixty now	– Ze moet nu boven de zestig zijn
He must be in his office now	– Hij moet nu in zijn kantoor zijn
There must be some beer in the fridge	– Er moet nog wat bier in de ijskast zijn
What a sensible man your grandfather must have been	– Wat een verstandig man moet je grootvader zijn geweest

The examples show that the idea of logical necessity is sometimes weakened to that of logical assumption or a guess. Logical necessity with reference to the past is expressed by *must* + perfect infinitive.

4.2.3.6   *Shall*

English *shall* and Dutch *zullen* are mainly used to express (a) future and (b) volition.

A. Future

Like *will* (4.2.3.8), *shall* is used as an auxiliary of the (present) future tense (4.4.1.5). It differs from *will* in that its use is restricted to first–person subjects, and to formal style. The past tense form of *shall* is *should* (4.2.3.7), which is used to mark the past future tense. Dutch normally uses the present tense or the future tense (with *zullen*) to express futurity. Examples:

In the year 2000 I shall be forty	– In het jaar 2000 ben ik veertig/ ...zal ik veertig zijn
We shall never know whether he was honest	– Wij zullen nooit weten of hij eerlijk was
I do not think I shall ever be a great politician	– Ik denk niet dat ik ooit een groot politicus zal worden

B. Volition

Shall may express intention, willingness or insistence on the part of the speaker. This use of *shall* is not restricted to first–person subjects, e.g. *It shall be done as you wish*, i.e. 'I guarantee that...', or *It shall be done at once*, i.e. 'I insist that...'. This use of *shall* is rather formal. Sentences with volitional *shall* are often interpreted as denoting promises, favours, threats and the like.

Dutch often uses the present tense of a lexical verb, but in some cases (especially with threats) *zullen* is obligatory. Examples:

They shall not catch me again	– Zij zullen mij niet meer te pakken krijgen
You shall be amply rewarded for this	– U zult hiervoor ruim worden beloond
If he is good, he shall have a new bike for his birthday	– Als hij braaf is, krijgt hij voor zijn verjaardag een nieuwe fiets

In questions, *shall* relates to the addressee rather than to the speaker, e.g. *Shall I/he open it for you?*, which means 'Do you want me/him to open it for you?'.

4.2.3.7   Should

Should is mainly used to express (a) future–in–the–past, (b) obligation, (c) probability, (d) possibility and (e) 'putative' meaning.

A. Future–in–the–past

In this sense *should* is the past time equivalent of future *shall* (4.2.3.6), which can serve as a marker of the (present) future tense in English (4.4.1.5). It occurs with first–person subjects only. The past future tense (4.4.1.6) places an event or activity in the future, relative to a point of orientation in the past: the meaning is 'future–in–the–past'. This can be seen most clearly in the change from direct speech to indirect speech. Compare, for example:

(a) I shall be in London at 10.45
(b) I wrote to her that I should be in London at 10.45

In the first sentence (direct speech) the point of orientation for the future time reference is 'now' (the moment of speech). In the second sentence (indirect speech) the point of orientation is *shifted back* from 'now' to the past (more specifically, to the moment of my writing to her). Examples:

I knew I should regret it afterwards	– Ik wist dat ik het later zou betreuren
We hoped we should be on time for the show	– We hoopten dat we op tijd zouden zijn voor de voorstelling

This use of *should* also occurs in the main clause of conditional sentences, or if a condition is implied. For example:

If I had time, I should help you with that letter	– Als ik tijd had, zou ik je helpen met die brief
I shouldn't go there again for all the world	– Ik zou er voor geen goud weer heen gaan

In all the examples above *should* can be replaced by *would* (see 4.2.3.9 and 4.4.1.6).

B. Obligation

Should in this sense expresses what it is (morally) appropriate or advisable to do (Du. *(eigenlijk) moeten/(be)horen te*): the speaker recommends a particular course of action or attitude. In this use *should* occurs with all persons, and it is often replaceable by *ought to* (4.2.3.12), but not by *would* (4.2.3.9). *Should* and *ought to* are both less categorical than *must* (4.2.3.5) in expressing moral obligation or duty. Thus,

You should really try to help him

sounds weaker and less confident than:

You must really try to help him

The example with *must* denotes inescapable obligation imposed by the speaker. Here are some further examples with *should*:

You should really be more careful next time	– Je moet de volgende keer echt voorzichtiger zijn
You should set your younger brothers a good example	– Je moet je jongere broers het goede voorbeeld geven
You should go and see your doctor before the pain gets worse	– Ga maar naar je dokter voordat de pijn erger wordt
The goods should be delivered next week	– De goederen moeten volgende week afgeleverd worden
She should have put the hairdryer back in the cupboard	– Ze had de haardroger terug in de kast moeten leggen

The management should have	– De directie had dit probleem al lang
solved this problem long ago	moeten oplossen

In *Why*–questions, e.g.:

    Why should we pay so much money?

should means 'Is it really necessary to…?', and the implicit answer is *No*.

C. Probability

This sense of *should* expresses what the speaker considers to be a reasonable conclusion in view of the evidence he has at his disposal. It occurs with all persons. In a sentence such as: *John should be at home by now*, the speaker is saying that, given the information he has, it is probable that John is at home now. *Should* and *ought to* (4.2.3.12) can be used interchangeably in the probability sense, but *should* occurs more frequently than *ought to*. *Must* in the logical necessity sense (4.2.3.5) comes rather close in meaning to (strong) probability *should/ought to*, e.g. *John must be at home by now*. However, *should* and *ought to* sound far less categorical and confident than *must*, leaving room for doubt about the soundness of the assumption. They can be looked upon as weaker equivalents of *must*. Examples:

We should be there in about	– We moeten er over een uur of twee
two hours	wel zijn
The parcel should arrive in	– Het pakje moet met de post van
tomorrow's post	morgen aankomen
My diary should be lying	– Mijn agenda moet ergens op mijn
somewhere on my desk, but	bureau liggen, maar ik kan hem
I can't find it just now	nu zo gauw niet vinden
Her plane should have landed	– Haar vliegtuig moet een uur geleden
an hour ago	zijn geland

In the above examples the speaker is saying: 'I think it is probable that…'.

  To express probability Dutch often uses the modals *moeten* or *zullen*, which may be combined with an adverbial like *(best) wel*, *waarschijnlijk* or *vermoedelijk*, e.g. *John zal nu vermoedelijk wel thuis zijn*, or *Het pakje zal waarschijnlijk met de post van morgen aankomen*. Most of the above examples with *should* can also be interpreted as expressing obligation (see B above); as is so often the case, the context usually helps to make clear which interpretation is intended. Compare:

> (a) They should finish before six (if they start now)
> (b) They should finish before six (otherwise they will miss their train)

The first sentence expresses probability, the second obligation.

D. Possibility

Should can be used in conditional clauses instead of the ordinary present tense to express a 'theoretical' and tentative possibility. It occurs with all persons, and is not interchangeable with *would*. Compare:

> (a) If you see Gladys, do give her my very best wishes
> (b) If you should see Gladys, do give her my very best wishes

Should in the conditional clause of sentence (b) makes the event referred to ('seeing Gladys') sound slightly less likely than in sentence (a). However, in both cases the *if*–clause expresses a *'real condition'*, which means that the speaker leaves it open whether the condition will be fulfilled or not; the (b)– sentence is a more tentative real condition, implying: 'you might see Gladys'. Dutch uses *mocht(en)* in conditional clauses of this kind. Examples:

If you should hear from Henry again, please let me know	– Als je weer iets van Henry mocht horen, laat het mij dan weten
If this should happen again, we shall be better prepared	– Als dit weer mocht gebeuren, zijn we beter voorbereid

Should also occurs in an inverted construction, without the conjunction *if*, e.g. *Should you hear from Henry again,....* Similarly, Dutch has: *Mocht je weer iets van Henry horen,....*

E. 'Putative' meaning

Should is used in *that*–clauses to express not a fact, but an idea or a plan which may not be fulfilled. It occurs with all persons, usually in formal style. Such *that*–clauses with 'putative' *should* occur in sentences which express personal opinions or feelings, such as regret, sorrow, surprise. This use of *should* helps to express the speaker's idea or emotion (that is why it is called 'putative' *should*). *Should* in these *that*–clauses is optional, and has no equivalent modal auxiliary in Dutch. This use of *should* is especially common after constructions such as: *It is amazing/natural/surprising/disgraceful/a pity/a shame that...*, or *I am surprised/shocked that...*). The *that*–clause refers to 'the very idea' of some-

thing. For example, in *It's a pity that they should think I did it,* the clause with *should* refers to the idea of their thinking that I did it ('the very idea of it!'). Without *should* (e.g. *It's a pity that they think I did it*), the *that*–clause refers to 'their thinking that I did it' as a fact. Examples:

I am surprised/It surprises me/It is surprising that he should feel so offended by what I have said	– Het verbaast me dat hij zich zo beledigd voelt door wat ik heb gezegd
What a shame that you should have been kept waiting like this!	– Wat een schande dat ze je zo hebben laten wachten
I am shocked that she should have been so naive	– Het schokt me dat ze zo naïef is geweest
It is a pity that you should have shown him these pictures	– Het is jammer dat je hem deze foto's hebt laten zien
The idea is that they should start by building a dam first	– Het idee is dat ze eerst beginnen een dam te bouwen

Putative *should* is also used after verbs expressing an emotion, a wish, or a demand, such as *regret, intend, insist, request, suggest, desire, demand*, e.g. *We regret that he should be thinking of leaving us soon.* This use of *should* is also found after adjectives like *important, essential, necessary, compulsory, anxious* and *eager*. These adjectives express that something is desirable or necessary. The *that*–clauses after these verbs or adjectives may also contain a subjunctive verb form (see section 4.6). Infinitive constructions are also possible after some of the verbs. Consider, for example:

We requested that they (should) stop calling us liars/We requested them to stop...	– Wij verzochten hen ermee op te houden ons leugenaars te noemen
I insisted that he (should) pay back the money this week	– Ik stond erop dat hij het geld deze week zou terugbetalen
It is important that a doctor (should) be consulted	– Het is belangrijk dat er een dokter geraadpleegd wordt

4.2.3.8   Will

Will is mainly used to express (a) future, (b) volition, (c) probability and (d) characteristic behaviour (cf. *shall*, 4.2.3.6).

A. *Future*

Like *shall, will* is regarded as an auxiliary of the (present) future tense (4.4.5). Future *will* occurs with all persons. With first–person subjects it is less formal in style than *shall*. The past tense form of *will* is *would* (4.2.3.9), which is used to mark the past future tense (4.4.6); see also *should* above (4.2.3.7). For other ways of expressing future time, see 4.4.1. Dutch normally uses the present tense or the future tense (with *zullen*) here. Examples:

In the year 2000 John will be fifty	– In het jaar 2000 is John vijftig/ …zal John vijftig zijn
I hope the weather will be good tomorrow	– Ik hoop dat het morgen lekker weer is
I do not think he will ever be a great politician	– Ik denk niet dat hij ooit een groot politicus zal worden
A holiday will do you good	– Een vakantie zal je goed doen

B. *Volition*

Will may express intention, willingness or insistence on the part of the subject of the sentence (compare this with volitional *shall* (4.2.3.6), which denotes intention, etc. on the part of the speaker). Volitional *will* occurs with all persons, and does not have the formal and old–fashioned ring of volitional *shall*. It is often difficult to draw a clear dividing–line between future *will* and volitional *will*. Dutch normally uses *zullen, willen* or the present tense of a lexical verb. Examples:

All right, I will give you a hand tomorrow	– Goed, ik zal je morgen een handje helpen
We will write to you soon	– We zullen je spoedig schrijven
Our teacher won't tell us how old he is	– Onze leraar wil ons niet vertellen hoe oud hij is

C. *Probability*

Will is also used to express an assumption, but it is weaker than logical necessity *must* (4.2.3.5), and stronger than probability *should* (4.2.3.7) and *ought to* (4.2.3.12). Probability *will* indicates that something is predictable or to be expected; it expresses a 'prediction' about the present. Dutch often uses *zullen* with the adverb *wel* in this case, or a present tense with the adverb *vast*:

(The door–bell rings) That will be the postman	– (De huisbel gaat) Dat zal de postbode wel zijn/Dat is vast de postbode

'There is somebody knocking at   – 'Er klopt iemand aan de deur' – 'Dat
  the door'– 'That'll be Peter'   zal Peter wel zijn'/'Dat is vast
                                           Peter'

It's 5.30. The secretary will   – Het is half zes. De secretaresse zal
  have left by now   nu wel vertrokken zijn

D. Characteristic behaviour

Will is also used to 'predict' typical or characteristic behaviour (see also *would*,
4.2.3.9). *Will* in this sense often refers to somebody's (bad) habits or to the nat-
ural behaviour of things (as in laws of nature). Dutch normally has the 'habit-
ual' present tense in this case. For example:

Whenever he needs money,   – Als hij geld nodig heeft, gaat hij
  he'll go out and steal   erop uit om te stelen
Nowadays she'll sit in her room   – Tegenwoordig zit ze urenlang in
  for hours, knitting woollen   haar kamer en breit wollen truien
  sweaters for her   voor haar kleinkinderen
  grandchildren
He will keep interrupting me   – Hij blijft me maar in de rede vallen
Only imitation gold will dissolve   – Alleen namaakgoud lost op in
  in sulphuric acid   zwavelzuur

4.2.3.9   Would

Would is mainly used to express (a) future–in–the–past, (b) conditionality, (c)
volition and (d) characteristic behaviour.

A. Future–in–the–past

Would is used to form the past future tense (4.4.6) and the past future perfect
tense (4.4.8). The typical function of these tenses is to shift back the future
time reference to the past, taking a moment in the past as a point of orienta-
tion. *Would* is followed by an infinitive or by *have* + *–ed* participle, and with
first-person subjects it is interchangeable with *should* (4.2.3.7). This use of
would occurs mainly in indirect speech. Examples:

George wrote to us that he   – George schreef ons dat hij om
  would be in London at 10.45   10 uur 45 in Londen zou zijn
We thought you would not be   – We dachten dat je pas na de lunch
  back until after lunch   terug zou komen

This was an experience they would never forget	– Dit was een ervaring die ze nooit zouden vergeten
He wrote to me that he would not have eaten yet when he arrived	– Hij schreef me dat hij nog niet zou hebben gegeten als hij aankwam
McMurphy said that by the end of this football season he would have played for Scotland for eight years	– McMurphy zei dat hij aan het eind van dit voetbalseizoen al acht jaar voor Schotland speelde/ zou spelen

B. Conditionality

Would + infinitive or + *have* and *–ed* participle is used in main clauses of conditional sentences denoting unreality. It does not occur in the subordinate clauses of such sentences, the past tense (4.4.2) or the past perfect tense (4.4.4) being used instead. This use of *would* is 'modal', since it is concerned with hypothetical situations. Dutch uses *zou(den)* or past tenses. For example:

If I were you, I would not go there	– Als ik jou was, zou ik er niet heen gaan
Would the match be cancelled if it rained tomorrow?	– Zou de wedstrijd worden afgelast als het morgen zou regenen?
If he had the money, he would lend it to you	– Als hij het geld had, zou hij het je lenen
If he had had the money, he would have lent it to you	– Als hij het geld had gehad, zou hij het je geleend hebben
If she had been at home, she would certainly have heard us	– Als ze thuis was geweest, had ze ons zeker gehoord

Sentences like these denote that the condition mentioned in the *if*–clause is not likely to be fulfilled, or that it was not fulfilled: the action or state will probably not occur, or it did not occur. In these cases, *would* cannot be used in the subordinate clause, unless it clearly expresses volition (see below).

C. Volition

As the past tense form of *will* (4.2.3.8), *would* can express willingness, intention or insistence. In its negative form (*wouldn't*), it denotes past refusals. For example:

He said he would help you/ wouldn't mind helping you	– Hij zei dat hij je wel wilde helpen
They promised they would lend us the money	– Ze beloofden dat ze ons het geld zouden lenen
Would you pass me the sugar, please?	– Zou je mij de suiker willen doorgeven?
I wouldn't like to be seen in his company	– Ik zou niet graag in zijn gezelschap gezien willen worden
Would you rather go to a cheaper restaurant?	– Zou je liever naar een goedkoper restaurant gaan?

D. Characteristic behaviour

Like *will* (4.2.3.8), *would* can refer to characteristic activities or to behaviour that is typical of someone. Dutch normally has a past tense in these cases. Examples:

Whenever we were in trouble, Joe would be the first to help us	– Altijd als we in de problemen zaten, was Joe de eerste die ons hielp
When my aunt Anne got older, she would sit in front of the window watching the traffic go by	– Toen mijn tante Anne ouder werd, zat ze vaak voor het raam naar het voorbijgaande verkeer te kijken
When we were children, we would visit our grandparents every Sunday	– Als kind bezochten wij onze grootouders iedere zondag

This use of *would* is restricted to positive statements. It does not normally occur in negative and interrogative sentences. On the difference between characteristic *would* and *used to*, see 4.2.3.13.

4.2.3.10   Dare

Dare is one of the so-called marginal modals (2.3.2); the others are *need, ought to* and *used to* (see below).

Dare can be used as a modal or as a lexical verb. If it is a modal, it takes no –*s* in the third person singular, questions and negatives are formed without *do*, and it is followed by an infinitive without *to*. If it behaves like a lexical verb, it takes –*s*, *do* and a *to*–infinitive. Compare, for example:

> John dare not/daren't go there
> John does not/doesn't dare to go there

English also has:

> John doesn't dare go there (i.e. with a bare infinitive)

In the past tense *did not dare* is preferred to *dared not*, which is more formal. Compare also:

> Dare you ask her?
> Do you dare (to) ask her?

In the past tense *Did John dare?* is preferred to *Dared John?* Examples:

She daren't wear/doesn't dare (to) wear that red dress again	– Ze durft die rode jurk niet meer te dragen
Dare you tell/Do you dare (to) tell her what you know?	– Durf je haar te vertellen wat je weet?
How dare you say a thing like that?	– Hoe durf je zoiets te zeggen?

In positive statements English only allows the lexical verb *dare*, not the modal. Thus, it is possible to say:

> He dares to stand up for his beliefs (i.e. not: * He dare stand up…)

Expressions like *be not afraid to* and *be bold enough* are often used instead of *dare*.

4.2.3.11   Need

Need is like *dare* (4.2.3.10) in that it can be used as a modal or as a lexical verb. As a modal, it takes no –*s* in the third person singular, questions and negatives are formed without *do*, and it is followed by an infinitive without *to*. As a lexical verb, it takes –*s*, *do* and a *to*–infinitive. Compare, for example:

> John need not/needn't go there
> John does not/doesn't need to go there

There is however a difference of meaning between the two sentences. The first means that John is allowed not to go there (the opposite of: *John must go there* (4.2.3.5)), whereas the second means that it is not necessary for him to go there (the opposite of: *John has to go there*). Dutch can distinguish between these two meanings by using *niet hoeven* and *niet nodig zijn*, e.g. *John hoeft er niet naar toe* and *Het is niet nodig dat John er naar toe gaat*, the latter being a more objective statement that something is not necessary.

The questions corresponding to the sentences above are:

> Need he go there?
> Does he need to go there?

Again, there is a difference between these two questions: the first asks whether he is obliged to go there (sometimes with the implication 'I hope not'), whereas the second is a more neutral request for information about whether the necessity exists.

In negative and interrogative sentences *need* is also used to express logical necessity (cf. *must* (4.2.3.5)), e.g. *John needn't have done it* (Du. *John hoeft het niet gedaan te hebben*). Incidentally, this English sentence could also mean: *John had het niet hoeven doen*.

Lexical verb *need* is used to the exclusion of modal *need* in positive sentences (e.g. *John needs to work harder*) and in past time contexts (e.g. *John did not need to go there*), not: **John needed not go there*. In indirect speech, however, it is possible to use modal *need*, e.g. *She said that John need not go there* (Du. *Zij zei dat John er niet heen hoefde te gaan*) is fine in English. Examples of modal *need*:

You needn't take these pills every day	– Je hoeft deze pillen niet iedere dag in te nemen
We needn't worry about him any more	– We hoeven ons over hem geen zorgen meer te maken
Need we tell him what has happened?	– Moeten we hem vertellen wat er gebeurd is?
I needn't repeat it, need I?	– Ik hoef het toch niet te herhalen, hè?

4.2.3.12   Ought to

Ought to is used to express (a) obligation and (b) probability.

A. Obligation

Like *should* (4.2.3.7), *ought to* may denote a moral obligation or duty, or in general what the speaker thinks would be advisable to do. *Should* and *ought to* can be used interchangeably in the following sentences, although *ought to* is sometimes felt to be stronger:

> You should/ought to set your brothers a good example
> You should/ought to try and keep this secret to yourself
> They should/ought to be ashamed of themselves

Should and *ought to* are virtually synonymous, but *ought to* more explicitly suggests that something is a duty. Another difference is that, unlike *should*, *ought to* normally receives stress.
   There is, for example, a subtle difference between the following sentences:

> If you've got the flu, you should stay in bed
> If you've got the flu, you ought to stay in bed

The first sentence suggests what would be best for the addressee to do, whereas the second sentence indicates what the addressee's duty is, and what would be best for anyone.
   Moreover, unlike *should*, *ought to* occurs mostly in positive statements, not in negative and in interrogative sentences.
   Here are some further examples with obligational *ought to*:

You really ought to report this to the police	– Je moet dit echt aan de politie melden
I ought to write two more essays before the end of this term, but I don't think I will manage	– Ik moet nog twee werkstukken schrijven voor het einde van dit trimester, maar ik denk niet dat het mij lukt
The doctor ought to have warned us about the risks of the operation	– De dokter had ons moeten waarschuwen voor de risico's van de operatie

B. Probability

Like *should*, *ought to* is also used to express (strong) probability: the speaker suggests that, given certain evidence, there is only one reasonable conclusion to be drawn. *Ought to* and *should* are weaker than logical necessity *must* (4.2.3.5), and their meaning often amounts to no more than a tentative as-

sumption. Unlike *should*, *ought to* tends to occur in positive statements. Typical examples of probability *ought to* are:

The money ought to be in the bottom drawer of my desk	– Het geld moet in de onderste la van mijn bureau liggen
My dad ought to be home soon	– Mijn pa zal nu wel gauw thuis zijn
The journey to Glasgow ought to take less than an hour and a half	– De reis naar Glasgow duurt waarschijnlijk nog geen anderhalf uur

4.2.3.13   Used to

The expression *used to* refers to habits or situations in the past, implying 'formerly, but not now'. *Used to* is rendered by the habitual past tense in Dutch, with or without the adverb *vroeger* or *altijd*. For example, *My parents used to have lots of visitors in those days* may be translated as: *Mijn ouders hadden in die tijd altijd veel bezoekers*, and *In his younger days, he used to teach physical education* as: *In zijn jongere jaren gaf hij gymnastiek*.

   The negative form of *used to* is either *used not to* or *didn't use(d) to*, and the interrogative form is normally *Did he use(d) to...?*, rather than *Used he to...?* The *do*–forms are more formal. Examples of modal *used to*:

I used to smoke a packet of cigarettes a day, but now I have given it up	– Ik rookte vroeger een pakje sigaretten per dag, maar daar ben ik nu mee gestopt
There used to be flowers in this garden, but they have all died	– Er stonden vroeger bloemen in deze tuin, maar die zijn nu allemaal dood
I used not to like him very much	– Vroeger mocht ik hem niet zo
He used not to behave like that. I wonder what has happened to him	– Hij gedroeg zich vroeger niet zo. Ik vraag me af wat er met hem gebeurd is
Didn't you also use to go to Southport for your holidays?	– Gingen jullie vroeger ook niet naar Southport op vakantie?

Used to and *would* (4.2.3.9) can both be used to refer to past habits, e.g. *When my grandparents were still alive, we would/used to visit them every Sunday.* However, *would* can only be used for repeated actions ('characteristic behaviour'), not for states or situations in the past (so, *There would be flowers in this garden, but they have all died* is wrong).

4.2.4   The semi–auxiliaries

Semi–auxiliaries (2.3.2) are verbs and verbal expressions which are like auxiliaries in that they allow passivization without a change of meaning, e.g. *All students seem to read this book* vs *This book seems to be read by all students*. Morphologically, however, they behave like lexical verbs in that they require *do* in negatives, questions and so on (with the exception of the semi–auxiliaries with *be*). Two main classes of semi–auxiliaries can be distinguished: those with the verbs *be* and *have* (e.g. *be about to, be bound to, be certain to, be going to, be likely to* and *have (got) to*), and a set of items such as *appear to, begin to, fail to, happen to, prove to* and *seem to*.

Consider the following English examples and their Dutch translations:

He is bound to win again next week	– Hij wint vast en zeker de volgende week weer
This kind of accident is likely to happen again	– Dit soort ongeluk gebeurt waarschijnlijk weer
How often do I have to ask you to tidy your room?	– Hoe vaak moet ik je vragen je kamer op te ruimen?
He appears to enjoy her company	– Hij schijnt haar gezelschap prettig te vinden
We fail to see your point	– We begrijpen niet wat je bedoelt
They happened to see the burglar entering the house	– Ze zagen toevallig de inbreker het huis binnengaan
If you happen to meet Mary, give her my regards	– Mocht je Mary tegenkomen, doe haar dan de groeten van mij
Ronald proved/turned out to be honest after all	– Ronald bleek toch eerlijk te zijn
They seem to get along much better these days	– Ze schijnen tegenwoordig veel beter met elkaar te kunnen opschieten
Why do you keep asking the same question?	– Waarom blijf je maar dezelfde vraag stellen?

4.3   Verb phrases

We have seen (2.4.2.2) that verb phrases, which in our definition consist of verbal forms only, may be either *simple* or *complex*. Simple verb phrases consist of only one verb, whereas complex verb phrases consist of two or more verbs. Thus, *write, writes, wrote, writing*, etc. are simple, whereas *may write, may be writing, having written, to have been written*, etc. are complex. Both

types of verb phrases can be *finite* or *non–finite*. A few important differences between English and Dutch are worth noting here.

4.3.1   Simple and complex verb phrases

One difference between the two languages is that modal auxiliaries can occur without infinitives in Dutch, but not in English (4.1). Compare, for example:

He must/may go home now	– Hij moet/mag nu naar huis
We cannot come tomorrow	– We kunnen morgen niet (komen)
It must be said that it was not entirely his fault	– Het moet gezegd dat het niet helemaal zijn schuld was

The verb following the English modal is in the infinitive form (usually without *to*). In Dutch, the 'missing' verb is understood, or it may be supplied from the context.

4.3.2   Finite and non–finite verb phrases

There are many cases in which English requires a non–finite verb form and Dutch a finite one. For example, certain verbs in English require a non–finite complement where Dutch has a corresponding finite complement. This applies mainly to the English verbs *hate, have, know, like, prefer, want* and *wish* in constructions like the following:

She hates us/our enjoying ourselves while she has to work all day	– Ze heeft er een hekel aan als we ons vermaken terwijl zij de hele dag moet werken
I won't have you saying such things	– Ik wil niet dat je zulke dingen zegt
Have you ever known him to get angry?	– Heb je ooit meegemaakt dat hij boos werd?
I prefer people not to smoke in this room	– Ik heb liever niet dat men in deze kamer rookt
Why didn't you want her to go?	– Waarom wilde je niet dat ze ging?
He said he wished there to be no misunderstanding on this matter	– Hij zei dat hij niet wilde dat er enig misverstand over deze zaak bestond

English and Dutch also use non–finite verb forms as complements of adjectives and nouns (e.g. *easy to understand* (Du. *gemakkelijk te begrijpen*) and *his attempt to persuade her* (Du. *zijn poging haar te overreden*)). However, in some cases, Dutch also allows a finite construction. Consider, for example:

He is not an easy person to please	– Hij is niet iemand die je gemakkelijk tevreden stelt/...die gemakkelijk tevreden te stellen is
You are foolish to spend so much on records	– Het is dom van je dat je zoveel aan platen uitgeeft

Some non–transitive verbs in English (e.g. *be, live, come*, etc.) may also be followed by a non–finite verb form. The corresponding forms in Dutch are finite or non–finite. Compare, for example:

John is not to be envied	– John is niet te benijden
She was sure she would live to be 100	– Ze was er zeker van dat ze wel 100 zou worden
The child came running to us	– Het kind kwam naar ons toe gerend
He ended up owning a large estate	– Uiteindelijk werd hij eigenaar van een groot landgoed

4.4   The tenses and their uses

Tense is the grammatical category whose main function it is to indicate the *time* at which the action, event or state expressed by the verb is viewed as happening or existing. An action, event or state may be in the past, present or future relative to *the moment of speech*, which is 'now'. More complex temporal relations are also possible, involving points of orientation other than the moment of speech (henceforth abbreviated as *MoS*).

English and Dutch have two one–word tenses (the present tense and the past tense) and six multi–word tenses consisting of one or more tense auxiliaries followed by a lexical verb.

The terms *time* and *tense* should not be confused. *Time* is a universal, non–linguistic notion, and *tense* is one of its main expressions in language. Consider the following three sentences:

John studied law in Oxford from 1969 to 1972
He is now assistant manager of an electronics firm
Next year he will be appointed manager of another firm

The tenses of the verbs in these sentences are past, present and (present) future respectively: in the first sentence the activity referred to is viewed as taking place before MoS (the speaker's 'now'), in the second the state described is viewed as overlapping with MoS, while in the third sentence reference is made to an event that is expected to take place after MoS. We shall assume that *time* can be represented as a straight line extending indefinitely to the left (the past) and to the right (the future), with MoS serving as a point that separates the past and the future (see the diagrams given below).

It is important to distinguish carefully between time and tense, and to realize that, although there is a fairly close correlation between the two, there is no one–to–one relationship between them, i.e. tenses do not always refer to the time–sphere with which they are primarily associated. If we look at the present tense, for example, we find that it rarely refers to actions, events or states that strictly coincide with MoS. The present tense is used to refer to:

(a)   temporally–unrestricted states: e.g. *William's parents live in Essex*
(b)   temporally–unrestricted habitual activities: e.g. *John plays tennis twice a week*
(c)   future time: e.g. *The match starts at three this afternoon*
(d)   past time: e.g. *On 15th April 1940 British troops arrive in Norway*

In the examples (a) and (b) the time reference includes MoS, whereas in (c) and (d) the events referred to are separate from MoS (following or preceding it).

The future and past tenses, too, have uses other than merely referring to the time–sphere from which they take their names. Thus, the future tense is often coloured with modality. This is not surprising, since it lies in the very nature of the future that things are uncertain or at best only likely to take place. The following examples illustrate the various modal uses of the future tense in English (note that the last three sentences hardly refer to future time at all):

I'll let you know as soon as possible (i.e. 'I promise that...')
I won't see a doctor (i.e. 'I refuse to see a doctor')
She'll do anything for money (denoting characteristic behaviour)
That will be Mary on the phone (expressing probability, assumption)
She will have arrived by now (expressing probability, assumption)

Similarly, apart from referring to past time, the past tense is also used to denote unreality in present or future time ('the modal past'), e.g. *knew, left* and *went* in:

If he knew about it, he would certainly not approve of it
Suppose we left tomorrow
It is high time we went

The list of tenses which follows gives an English example on the left and a corresponding Dutch example on the right. The examples contain regular verb forms only. Irregular English verbs are listed in Appendix I. Further examples and details will be given later.

1. Present tense (Du. onvoltooid tegenwoordige tijd):

   John *plays* tennis twice a week   – John *tennist* tweemaal per week

2. Past tense (Du. onvoltooid verleden tijd):

   He said that a few years ago he   – Hij zei dat hij enkele jaren geleden
   played tennis almost every   bijna iedere dag *tenniste*
   day

3. Present perfect tense (Du. voltooid tegenwoordige tijd):

   She *has sprained* her ankle   – Ze *heeft* haar enkel *verstuikt*

4. Past perfect tense (Du. voltooid verleden tijd):

   She said she *had sprained* her   – Ze zei dat ze haar enkel *had*
   ankle   *verstuikt*

5. Present future tense (Du. onvoltooid tegenwoordig toekomende tijd):

   The bomb *will explode* in a few   – De bom *zal* over enkele minuten
   minutes   *ontploffen*

6. Past future tense (Du. onvoltooid verleden toekomende tijd):

   They said that the bomb *would*   – Ze zeiden dat de bom over enkele
   explode in a few minutes   minuten *zou ontploffen*

7. Present future perfect tense (Du. voltooid tegenwoordig toekomende tijd):

   By midnight, we *will/shall have*   – Tegen middernacht *zullen* we alle
   counted all the votes   stemmen *geteld hebben*

8. Past future perfect tense (Du. voltooid verleden toekomende tijd):

> We were sure that by midnight   – We waren er zeker van dat we tegen
> we *would/should have*   middernacht alle stemmen *geteld*
> *counted* all the votes   *zouden hebben*

English has two auxiliaries for the (present) future tense: *shall* and *will* (often contracted to *'ll* in informal style (4.2.3.6 and 4.2.3.8)). *Will* occurs with all three persons, while *shall* as an auxiliary of the future is confined to first–person subjects (*I* or *we*). For example:

> I shall/will have to tell your father if you do that again
> We shall/'ll see what happens

Future *shall* is regarded as more formal than the corresponding *will*–form.

Dutch uses *zullen* as a marker of futurity, but, like *will/shall*, it often has modal overtones. In fact, the Dutch construction with *zullen* is rarely used with pure future meaning, and the normal way to refer to the future in Dutch is by means of the present tense.

To form the perfect tenses, Dutch has the auxiliaries *hebben* and *zijn*, where English only uses the auxiliary *have*. Examples:

> We have not seen him recently   – We hebben hem de laatste tijd niet
>   gezien
> She had never tasted frogs' legs   – Ze had nog nooit kikkerbilletjes
>   before   geproefd
> We have been to Portugal only   – We zijn pas één keer in Portugal
>   once   geweest
> The train has already left   – De trein is al vertrokken

In the following sections we shall list the main uses of each of the eight English tenses mentioned above, with examples and a time–diagram in each case. Throughout the discussion which follows we shall assume that time reference is established by the *combination* of the tense and the time adverbial of a sentence; often, however, the intended time reference is implicit in the context.

4.4.1 Present tense

We distinguish the following uses of the (simple) present tense in English and Dutch: (1) the unrestrictive use, (2) the habitual use, (3) the instantaneous use,

(4) the future use, and (5) the historic use. In addition, the present tense in Dutch has a continuative use (cf. the present perfect tense, 4.4.3 below).

(1) 'unrestrictive use'

William's parents live in Essex	– William z'n ouders wonen in Essex
This book belongs to George	– Dit boek is van George
Do you know Spanish?	– Ken je Spaans?
Professor Weizmann speaks five languages fluently	– Professor Weizmann spreekt vijf talen vloeiend
John and Mary are good friends	– John en Mary zijn goede vrienden

diagram A

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
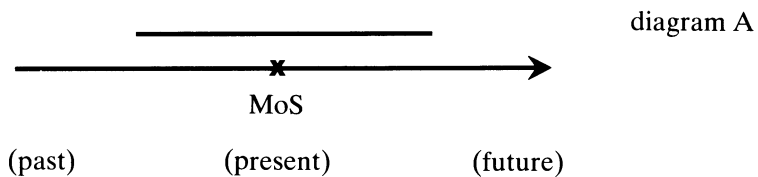
This use of the present tense refers to states that are viewed as extending indefinitely into past and future time, as indicated by the top line in diagram A. The verbs used here typically denote states. Thus, the verb *speak* in the fourth example above is to be interpreted as stative here (in the sense of 'know'). A point particularly worth noting for Dutch students is that verbs used in the unrestrictive sense do not normally occur in the progressive (see 2.5).

The duration of the state may be limited by adverbial phrases like *at present* and *these days*, in which case the progressive may be used instead of the simple present tense, e.g.:

At present William's parents live in Essex/...are living...
Mary wears her hair long these days/...is wearing...

However, sentences of this kind often contain no time adverbial.
Sentences like the following, which denote laws of nature or general truths, are also regarded as instances of the unrestrictive use of the present tense:

Glass transmits light but not sound	– Glas geleidt licht maar niet geluid
Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius	– Water kookt bij 100 graden
Two and two makes four	– Twee plus twee is vier

Geographical facts and proverbs also belong to this category:

Helsinki is the capital of Finland	– Helsinki is de hoofdstad van Finland
The Lake District is up in the top left–hand corner of England	– Het Merengebied ligt in de linker bovenhoek van Engeland
It takes two to make a quarrel	– Waar twee ruzie maken, hebben twee schuld
Many hands make light work	– Vele handen maken licht werk

(2) 'habitual use'

John plays tennis twice a week	– John tennist tweemaal per week
Dr Gunn visits his patients at least once a week	– Dr. Gunn bezoekt zijn patienten minstens eenmaal per week
Jane frequently walks to work	– Jane loopt vaak naar haar werk
Robert generally buys his socks and underwear at Marks and Spencer's	– Robert koopt over het algemeen zijn sokken en ondergoed bij Marks en Spencer
We always go swimming in the mountain lake	– We gaan altijd zwemmen in het bergmeer

diagram B

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
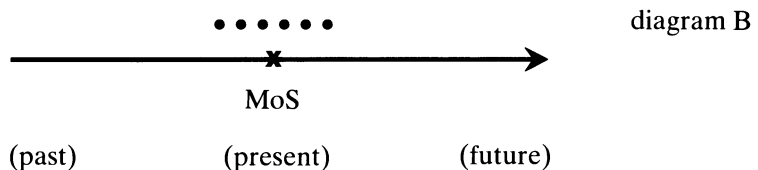
The habitual or iterative use of the present tense is usually confined to verbs denoting events, as indicated in diagram B by the series of dots above the time line. Sentences of this kind often contain adverbials expressing frequency or repetition, e.g. *always, every day, generally, sometimes, twice a week*.

(3) 'instantaneous use'

McDonald passes the ball to Stevens– he shoots, and it's a goal!	– McDonald speelt de bal naar Stevens…die schiet, en het is een goal!
Here he comes!	– Daar is ie!
I take three nice fresh eggs, add some butter and sugar, and whisk vigorously…	– Ik neem drie lekkere verse eieren, doe er wat boter en suiker bij, en klop stevig…
I hereby pronounce you man and wife	– Ik verklaar u nu man en vrouw

diagram C

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
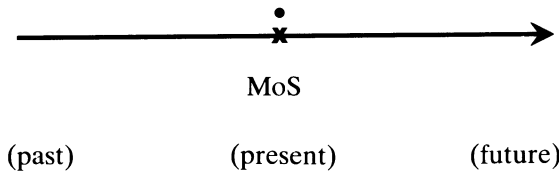
The event referred to, and represented by a single dot in the diagram, occurs simultaneously with MoS (the moment of speech). This use is often found in sports commentaries, exclamations and demonstrations, and also with verbs such as *baptize, declare, promise, pronounce* (always with the first–person subject *I* and often with *hereby*). Note again that it would be wrong to use the progressive form here instead of the simple present tense (cf. 4.2.2.2 and 4.5). The simple present tense occurs far more frequently in Dutch than in English. One of the reasons is that where English has a progressive form, we often find the simple present tense in Dutch, e.g.:

'What is John doing?'– 'He is writing a letter to his girlfriend'	– 'Wat doet John?'– 'Hij schrijft een brief aan zijn vriendin'
'Are you smoking again?'	– 'Rook je weer?'

(4) 'future use'

The match starts at three this afternoon	– De wedstrijd begint vanmiddag om drie uur
My train leaves at 6.35	– Mijn trein vertrekt om 6 uur 35
The summer holidays begin on 15th July this year	– De zomervakantie begint dit jaar op 15 juli
She is twenty–one next Saturday	– Ze wordt a.s. zaterdag eenentwintig
We will give him a warm welcome when he comes	– We zullen hem hartelijk verwelkomen als hij komt

diagram D

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
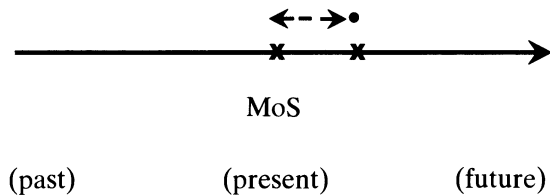
In English the present tense with future meaning can only be used when there is a very close link between MoS and the future action, event or state. This is expressed in the diagram by means of the interrupted line with the double–pointed arrow. This use of the present tense is restricted to cases where the future action, event or state is already completely determined, and forms part of an official schedule, programme or time–table. Note, however, that this restriction on the future use of the present tense applies to main clauses only; in subordinate clauses of time and condition, for example, this use of the present tense has a more or less neutral future meaning (in the last example above: ...*when he comes*).

In Dutch, there are no such restrictions on the future use of the present tense. In fact, it is the normal form to refer to the future both in main clauses and subordinate clauses, but *zullen* and *gaan* + infinitive also occur. For example:

Our train will arrive in London at 10.45/Our train arrives in London at 10.45	– Onze trein komt om 10 uur 45 in Londen aan
Next week they will have been engaged for two years	– Volgende week zijn ze twee jaar verloofd
They will be married in July/ They are getting married in July	– Ze trouwen in juli/...gaan... trouwen
We shall come and see you when we are in London	– We komen je opzoeken als we in Londen zijn
We'll see	– We zullen wel zien

On other ways of expressing futurity, see 4.4.5 and 4.5.

Sentences of this kind, both in English and in Dutch, usually contain an adverbial specifying the time of the action, event or state in the future.

In diagram D above, specific time reference is indicated by means of a cross on the time line, to the right of MoS. The single dot above the cross denotes a single action, an event or a state in the future.

(5) 'historic use'

Last Saturday there I am quietly watching TV, when the bell rings. It's a police-	– Vorige week zaterdag zit ik rustig T.V. te kijken. Gaat gaat de bel. Is het een politieagent die wil dat

man who wants me to come to the police–station with him	ik met hem meega naar het bureau
On 15th April 1940 British troops arrive in Norway	– Op 15 april 1940 arriveren de Britse troepen in Noorwegen
Then in comes John and he starts screaming at us	– Toen komt John binnen en hij begint tegen ons te schreeuwen

diagram E

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
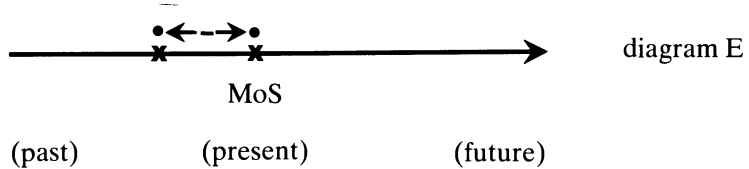
The historic present occurs both in English and in Dutch, and has the effect of recalling the past as vividly as if it were present. It is commonly used in spoken narrative (e.g. in jokes and anecdotes), but also occasionally in literary language. The event is usually specified by means of an adverbial of past time, as indicated by the cross on the time line, to the left of MoS in the diagram. As in the case of the 'future present' above, the interrupted line with the double arrow serves to denote a close link between MoS and the action or event represented by the dot.

The verbs *hear* and *tell* can be used in the historic present, as in:

I hear that you have been ill
Mary tells me that you did not like the book I gave you

Sometimes a Dutch historic present corresponds to a present perfect in English, especially when reference is made to an event in the recent past or to a result in the present, e.g.:

I have just been to see him	– Ik kom zojuist van hem vandaan
I have not come here to quarrel with you	– Ik kom hier niet om ruzie met je te maken

4.4.2   Past tense

We distinguish the following uses of the (simple) past tense: (1) the definite use, (2) the habitual use, and (3) the modal use. In addition, the past tense in Dutch has a continuative use (cf. the past perfect tense below). The uses of the past tense (except the modal use) denote that the entire action, event or state

referred to took place at a definite point of time, or covered a certain period of time, *before* MoS. It is an essential feature of the past tense that the action, event or state not only took place, but was also completed, before MoS, i.e. there should be a clear time interval between the past action, event or state and MoS. The past tense is frequently accompanied by an adverbial which specifies when the action took place or how long something lasted. However, the time reference may also be implied in the context.

(1) 'definite use'

John's father died last year	– Johns vader is vorig jaar overleden
I saw John yesterday. I met him on the bus	– Ik heb John gisteren gezien. Ik kwam hem in de bus tegen
Chopin visited England in 1837	– Chopin heeft in 1837 een bezoek aan Engeland gebracht
At the Olympic Games in Berlin Jesse Owens won four gold medals	– Bij de Olympische Spelen in Berlijn heeft Jesse Owens vier gouden medailles gewonnen
Bert lived in England from 1973 to 1975	– Bert heeft van 1973 tot 1975 in Engeland gewoond
James Ferguson was an eighteenth–century Scottish astronomer	– James Ferguson was een Schotse sterrenkundige uit de achttiende eeuw

diagram F(a)

MoS
(past)   (present)   (future)

diagram F(b)

MoS
(past)   (present)   (future)
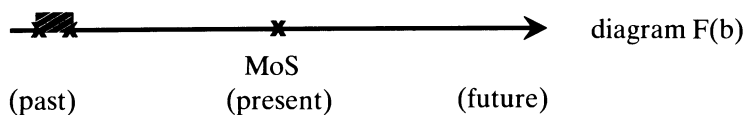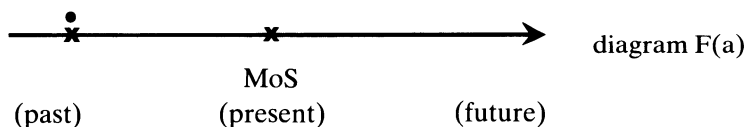
As the two diagrams indicate, the past action, event or state took place at a definite point of time or during a certain period of time before MoS. Whatever happened in the past is not felt to continue up to MoS or after MoS. For the use of the past tense it is essential that the action, event or state was completed before MoS. Typical time adverbials associated with this use of the past tense are: *yesterday, a week ago, last year, last Tuesday*, etc. The time reference may also be implied in the context. One might think of this kind of past time reference in terms of *closed past time*, as opposed to *open past time*, which, as we shall see, is typically expressed by the present perfect in English (4.4.3).

The normal way to refer to definite past time in Dutch is by means of the present perfect, but the past tense is also used. In many contexts these forms are interchangeable, but very often they are not. Consider the following sentence–pairs in Dutch:

> Johns vader is vorig jaar gestorven/Johns vader stierf vorig jaar
> Na de oorlog zijn veel Nederlanders naar Australië geëmigreerd/Na de oorlog emigreerden veel Nederlanders naar Australië
> Hoe oud was jij toen je vader stierf?/*Hoe oud ben jij geweest toen je vader stierf?/*Hoe oud was jij toen je vader gestorven is?
> Ik heb gisteren de hele dag gezwommen/*Ik zwom gisteren de hele dag

The factors influencing the choice between these two tenses in Dutch will not concern us here. What is important is that English has a past tense, not a present perfect, in all the cases mentioned above. Mistakes like *John's father has died last week* or *I've seen Max yesterday* are quite serious (see also 4.4.3).

(2) 'habitual use'

Last year John played tennis almost every day	– Vorig jaar tenniste John bijna elke dag
Dr Gunn visited his patients at least once a week	– Dr. Gunn bezocht zijn patienten minstens eenmaal per week
Jane frequently walked to work in those days	– Jane liep in die tijd vaak naar haar werk
Robert generally bought his socks and underwear at Marks and Spencer's	– Robert kocht over het algemeen zijn sokken en ondergoed bij Marks en Spencer
As children we always went swimming in the mountain lake	– Als kind gingen we altijd zwemmen in het bergmeer

diagram G

MoS

(past) (present) (future)
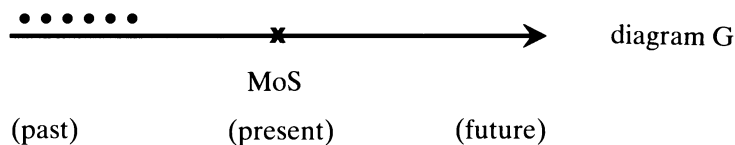
This use expresses habits or regular activities in the past. The dots above the time line, to the left of MoS, refer to events that are felt to form part of a regular pattern of behaviour in the past (cf. the 'habitual present'). There is a clear

time interval between MoS and the past events: the period of time in which the events took place does not extend up to MoS. Sentences of this kind usually contain adverbials like *every day, once a week, always, in the evenings*.

Here, too, Dutch can use a past tense or a present perfect. Examples:

> Maarten nam vroeger altijd de bus van acht uur naar zijn werk/Maarten heeft vroeger altijd de bus van acht uur naar zijn werk genomen
> Vroeger wandelden we hier iedere zondag (maar nu niet meer)/Vroeger hebben we hier iedere zondag gewandeld (daarom ken ik het hier zo goed)

Dutch sentences with a present perfect sometimes suggest that there is some relation between the events in the past and the present moment. However, in most cases either tense can be used. The important point again is that English offers no such choice at all: the past tense is the only form that could be used to translate sentences like those above. For example, *In the old days we have walked here every Sunday* would be wrong under any circumstances (see also 4.2.3.9 and 4.2.3.13 for the use of *would* and *used to*).

(3) 'modal use'

If he knew about it, he would certainly not approve of it	– Als hij het zou weten, zou hij het zeker niet goed vinden
If there was more time, I could answer all your questions	– Als er meer tijd was, zou ik al je vragen kunnen beantwoorden
I would lend you the money, if I had it	– Ik zou je het geld lenen, als ik het had
They would be very disappointed if we left now	– Zij zouden erg teleurgesteld zijn, als wij nu zouden vertrekken

The past tense forms *knew, was, had, left* in these examples do not refer to past time, but they denote unreality (something that is not the case). The speaker or writer refers to something, not as a fact, but as a state of affairs that would be desirable or conceivable. This use of the past tense is frequently found in *counterfactual* conditional sentences.

The implication of the counterfactual conditional sentences above is that the condition is not fulfilled or is not expected to be fulfilled. The past perfect, as we shall see below (4.4.4), may be used to denote unreality in the past.

In English the use of the modal past of lexical verbs is restricted to subordinate clauses, in particular conditional clauses; the modal past cannot occur in main clauses. As the examples show, English uses *would/should* + infinitive in-

stead, or the past tense of another modal (e.g. *could* or *might*). Conversely, the construction *would* + infinitive is not possible in subordinate clauses. For example, it is wrong to say: *If he would know about it, ...* Dutch, on the other hand, allows the modal past in the sub–clause as well as in the main clause; however, the construction with *zou(den)* may also occur in one or both clauses. The following table sums up the distribution of the modal past and *would/should* + infinitive or *zou(den)* in English and Dutch sub–clauses and main clauses.

	sub-clauses		main clauses	
	modal past	*would/zou*	modal past	*would/zou*
English	Yes	No	No	Yes
Dutch	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note, for example, the following translations:

If he knew about it, he would certainly not approve of it/*If he would know about it.../ *...he certainly did not approve of it – Als hij het wist, zou hij het zeker niet goed vinden/Als hij het zou weten, zou hij...

If she needed help, she would certainly let me know/*If she would need help.../*...she certainly let me know – Als ze hulp nodig zou hebben, zou ze het mij zeker laten weten/Als ze hulp nodig had, zou ze...

Both in Dutch and in English the past tense is also used to express doubt or a diffident attitude. For example:

What was his name again? – Hoe heette hij ook al weer?

I wanted to ask you something – Ik wilde U iets vragen

I thought I'd leave it at that for the moment – Ik dacht het hierbij voorlopig maar te moeten laten

This use of the past tense refers to the current and not the past feelings or thoughts of the speaker. Present and past tense are interchangeable here, but the past tense sounds more polite. By using this tense, the speaker seems to make the statement or request indirect and more tentative, suggesting that he is no longer necessarily committed to the feelings mentioned. *I want to ask you something* sounds more abrupt than *I wanted to ask you something*.

4.4.3   Present perfect tense

We distinguish two main uses of the present perfect for both English and Dutch: (1) the indefinite use, and (2) the resultative use. An important additional use for English is (3) the continuative use. Moreover, as we have seen, the present perfect in Dutch has definite and habitual uses, corresponding to those of the English past tense (4.4.2). In very general terms, the present perfect in English serves to locate an event, action or state within a period of time that began in the past and extends up to MoS (the moment of speech), and possibly beyond it. Unlike the past tense, the perfect specifies that the action, event or state referred to is *not* separated from the present moment by a time interval. We call the kind of time reference which is typical of the English perfect *open past time*, as opposed to the *closed past time* reference of the English past tense. The actions, events or states referred to by the present perfect in English are often seen as somehow relevant to the present moment. In the case of the indefinite and resultative uses the activities lie in the past within a period of time leading up to the present moment. In the case of the continuative use, however, the activity itself extends up to MoS (possibly beyond MoS).

(1) 'indefinite use'

I have been to Portugal only once	– Ik ben pas één keer in Portugal geweest
Have you seen my cat?	– Heb je mijn kat gezien?
They have also lived in the South for some years	– Ze hebben ook enkele jaren in het zuiden gewoond
'Have you ever been to England?'– 'Yes, three times'	– 'Ben je ooit in Engeland geweest?'– 'Ja, drie keer'
'Haven't we met somewhere before?'– 'Yes, we have. We met at John's birthday party'	– 'Kennen wij elkaar niet ergens van?'– 'Ja. We hebben elkaar op het verjaardagsfeestje van John ontmoet'

I've just seen a ghost!   – Ik heb net een spook gezien!

diagram H

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
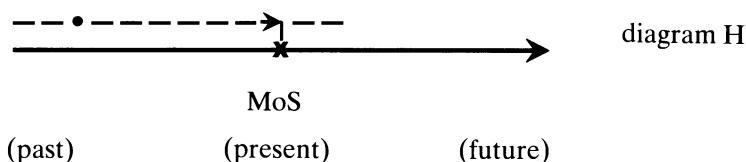
The indefinite use of the present perfect in English (and in Dutch) refers to one or more events in the past of which the time of occurrence is not specified. It is not the 'time when' that is important, but that someone has had a certain experience in the period leading up to MoS: in the speaker's mind there is always a close connection with the present moment. The two examples below both express a close connection with the present moment, but the presence of the specific past time adverbial (*when I was at school*) makes the use of the past tense obligatory in the second case.

Compare for example:

> 'Have you ever read *Hamlet*?'
> 'Yes, I have read it twice'

> 'Have you ever read *Hamlet*?'
> 'Yes, I read it when I was at school'

Compare also the following sentences:

> I have lost my pen. Can I borrow yours?
> I lost my pen, but it was found two days later by the cleaning–lady
> I lost my pen last week. And I still haven't found it

In BrE – there are differences here between AmE and BrE – the first of these sentences carries the implication that the pen is still lost, while with the second sentence there is no such implication. In the third example, due to the presence of *last week*, the use of the past tense is obligatory, although the implication is the same as that of the perfect in the first example.

   Sentences with an indefinite present perfect often contain an adverbial denoting indefinite time or frequency (e.g. *ever, never, occasionally, before* (*now*), *once, three times, every day*), but some of these sentences contain no indefinite time or frequency adverbial at all (e.g. *Have you been to Portugal?*). Some of the adverbials mentioned can also occur with the past tense (e.g. *I*

went to London once last year); however, in such cases the time is more exactly specified, e.g. by *last year*. Dutch also uses a present perfect for indefinite past reference:

He has often asked me to come   – Hij heeft mij vaak gevraagd hem te
    and see him   komen opzoeken
Have you ever met his wife?   – Heb je zijn vrouw ooit ontmoet?
He has since moved to Hull   – Hij is sindsdien naar Hull verhuisd

(2) 'resultative use'

Mary has sprained her ankle   – Mary heeft haar enkel verstuikt
    (i.e. 'it still hurts')
I have recovered from my   – Ik ben van mijn ziekte hersteld
    illness (i.e. 'I feel well
    again')
Look what you have done!   – Kijk wat je gedaan hebt!
    ('What a mess')
John has given his bike to Bill   – John heeft zijn fiets aan Bill
    (i.e. 'Bill has John's bike   gegeven
    now')
The children have already gone   – De kinderen zijn al naar bed gegaan
    to bed (i.e. 'they are in bed
    now')
I have just walked all the way   – Ik ben net helemaal van het station
    from the station ('this   komen lopen
    explains why I am
    exhausted')

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)

The resultative use is very closely related to the indefinite use discussed above. Here, too, the past event has a certain relevance to the present moment. As the examples show, the past event has a result in the present; in other words, the present state of affairs can be looked upon as the result or the effect of what has happened. This idea is indicated by the arrow pointing downward above MoS. Dutch normally uses the same tense.

When speaking of people who are no longer alive, it is normal to use the past tense in English. However, if reference is made to the effect or the result of certain past activities, then the present perfect may be used. Compare, for example:

> Shakespeare has written some very interesting plays
> Shakespeare quarrelled with every playwright in London

The use of the present perfect in the first example is possible because the plays still exist: Shakespeare, as it were, still speaks to us through his plays. Suppose, however, that Shakespeare had also written two novels, both of which have been lost, then we could only use a simple past tense, not a present perfect: *Shakespeare wrote two novels (but they have both been lost)*. In the second example, *quarrelled* cannot be replaced by *has quarrelled* because in this case there can be hardly any question of current relevance. This corresponds to the fact that we can say *Shakespeare is a renowned playwright*, but not **Shakespeare is a notorious quarreller*.

(3) 'continuative use'

We have lived in London since 1972 (i.e. 'we still live in London')	– Wij wonen al sinds 1972 in Londen
They have known each other for many years (i.e. 'they still know each other')	– Ze kennen elkaar al vele jaren
My uncle David has been a bachelor all his life (i.e. 'he still is')	– Mijn oom David is zijn hele leven vrijgezel geweest
Nancy has been in England for two months now (i.e. 'she still is in England')	– Nancy is nu alweer twee maanden in Engeland
He has played for England since he was eighteen (i.e. 'he still plays for England')	– Hij speelt al vanaf zijn achttiende voor het Engelse team
He has lived in this village all his life (i.e. 'he still lives here')	– Hij heeft zijn hele leven in dit dorp gewoond

diagram J

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
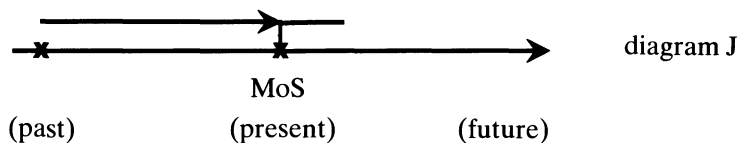
The situation described continues for some time in the past up to MoS, and possibly beyond MoS. The time limits of the state–up–to–the–present must always be indicated by means of an explicit temporal adverbial, which may be definite (*since 1972*, *for two months*), or indefinite (*for many years*, *for ages*, *all his life*).

Dutch may also use a present perfect to express the notion of state–up–to–the–present, but the normal and least ambiguous way to express this in Dutch is by means of a present tense (+*al/reeds*). Examples:

When are we leaving? We have been here for five days now	– Wanneer gaan we nou weg? We zijn hier al vijf dagen/We zijn hier nu vijf dagen geweest (less common)
We have known each other for many years now	– We kennen elkaar nu al jaren/ We hebben elkaar nu al jaren gekend (less common)

Note also the following translations:

His father has been dead for years	– Zijn vader is al jaren dood
How long has the meeting been going on?	– Hoe lang is de vergadering al bezig?
We have been here since ten o'clock	– We zijn hier al vanaf tien uur

The present perfect in Dutch is only rarely used in a continuative sense. The use of the present perfect in Dutch usually suggests that the period specified by the adverbial was completed in the past:

He has been once in prison for five years	– Hij heeft ooit vijf jaar in de gevangenis gezeten
They have also lived in England for two years	– Ze hebben ook twee jaar in Engeland gewoond

The implication of the Dutch examples is that 'he' is no longer in prison, and that 'they' no longer live in England.

Compare the Dutch sentences just given with those below, both of which contain a continuative present tense (i.e. the equivalent of an English continuative present perfect):

He has spent five years in prison	– Hij zit (al) vijf jaar in de gevangenis
They have lived in England for two years	– Ze wonen (al) twee jaar in Engeland

It should be noted, then, that an English sentence like: *He has spent five years in prison* means either *Hij heeft (ooit) vijf jaar in de gevangenis gezeten*, or: *Hij zit (al) vijf jaar in de gevangenis*.

4.4.4 Past perfect tense

We distinguish the following uses of the past perfect (or 'pluperfect') in English: (1) the definite use, (2) the habitual use, (3) the modal use, (4) the indefinite use, (5) the resultative use, and (6) the continuative use. The uses (1) – (3) correspond to those of the past tense discussed above (4.4.2), and the uses (4) – (6) to those of the present perfect (4.4.3). The function of the past perfect tense is to *shift back* the time reference, taking a definite point in the past as its point of orientation. It has the meaning of *past–in–the–past*.

(1) 'definite use'

Yesterday we were told that John's father had died on Sunday	– Gisteren kregen we te horen dat John z'n vader zondag was overleden
I did not know that Chopin had visited England in 1837	– Ik wist niet dat Chopin in 1837 een bezoek aan Engeland gebracht had
Tom said he had been to Spain in 1978	– Tom zei dat hij in 1978 in Spanje geweest was
Someone told us that Bert had lived in England from 1973 to 1975	– Iemand vertelde ons dat Bert van 1973 tot 1975 in Engeland gewoond had

diagram K(a)

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)

diagram K(b)

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
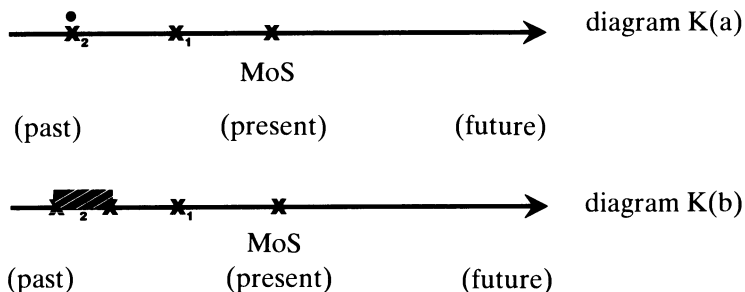
This use of the past perfect corresponds to the definite use of the past tense: it is the definite past tense shifted back. Thus, *John's father died on Sunday* becomes *Yesterday we were told that John's father had died on Sunday* in indirect speech (or in other subordinate clauses where the main verb is in the past tense). The past perfect in this case places the action or event referred to at a point of time further back in the past than a point of orientation already in the past: in diagram K(a) above, points x2 and x1 respectively. Thus, using diagram K(a), we can paraphrase the time–relations in the first example given above by saying that at point x1 in the past we heard that something had happened at point x2 in the more distant past (the pre–past). As diagram K(b) shows, x2 may of course also be a period of time (see the last example given above). The action, event or state represented by x2 in the diagrams is clearly separated from point x1 by a time interval: the time involved does not extend up to x1.

(2) 'habitual use'

John said that last year he had played tennis almost every day	– John zei dat hij vorig jaar bijna iedere dag getennist had
Until then Robert had generally bought his socks and underwear at Marks and Spencer's	– Tot dan had Robert over het algemeen zijn sokken en ondergoed bij Marks en Spencer gekocht
They remembered that as children they had always gone swimming in the mountain lake	– Zij herinnerden zich dat ze als kind altijd in het bergmeer waren gaan zwemmen
Until the previous year the university had always had plenty of money	– Tot vorig jaar had de universiteit altijd genoeg geld gehad

```
      • • • •
 ———————————×₁——————×—————————————————→        diagram L
         2
                    MoS
```

(past)   (present)   (future)
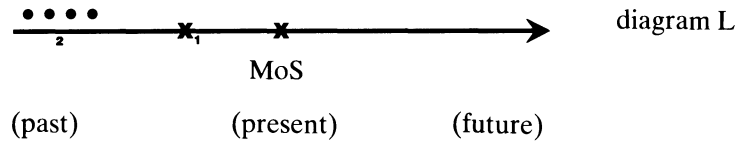
This use of the past perfect corresponds to the habitual use of the past tense: it is the habitual past tense shifted back to the more distant past. In this case the dots represent a series of events denoting a regular pattern of behaviour in the pre–past, before x1. There is a clear time interval between these events and x1.

   In the case of the definite and the habitual uses of this tense, it is often possible to replace the past perfect by a past tense in indirect speech. Consider, for example:

> Yesterday we were told that John's father had died/died on Sunday
> John said that last year he had played/played tennis almost every day

There seems to be practically no difference in meaning between the pairs. The shorter forms (*died, played*) are usually preferred to the longer ones (*had died, had played*) unless ambiguity is likely to arise. Dutch often uses a past perfect where English has a past tense (Du. *gestorven was, getennist had*, etc.).

   Note also the following translation:

> He said he had left/left the   – Hij zei dat hij van het feest was
>   party because he was fed up   weggegaan omdat hij er genoeg
>   van had

In this example *had been fed up* would be inappropriate, since 'being fed up' refers to a state that exists simultaneously with the action of 'leaving'. The converse also occurs: a past tense in English sometimes corresponds to a past perfect in Dutch. For example:

> Did you ring before?   – Had je al eerder gebeld?
> Was there anything else you   – Had U nog iets anders gewenst?
>   wanted?

The latter English sentence is an instance of the modal use of the past tense (4.4.2).

(3) 'modal use'

If he had known about it, he certainly would not have approved	– Als hij er van af geweten had, zou hij het zeker niet goed gevonden hebben
If there had been more time, I could have answered all your questions	– Als er meer tijd was geweest, had ik al je vragen kunnen beantwoorden
If I had been there, I would have put him in his place	– Als ik er bij was geweest, zou ik hem op zijn plaats hebben gezet

The modal use of the past perfect corresponds to the modal use of the past tense: it is the modal past shifted back from present or future time to past time. The past perfect forms (*had known, had been,* etc.) do not refer to the pre-past, but denote unreality in the past (i.e. something which was not the case). The speaker or writer refers to something, not as a fact, but as a state of affairs that would have been desirable or conceivable.

There is, for example, a difference in meaning between the following sentences:

If he had known about it, he certainly would not have approved	– Als hij er van af geweten had, zou hij het zeker niet goed gevonden hebben
If he knew about it, he certainly would not approve	– Als hij er van af zou weten, zou hij het zeker niet goed vinden

The first sentence has past time reference, whereas the second has present time reference. The implication of the first sentence is that the condition is rejected (i.e. 'but in fact he did not know about it'), while the second sentence implies that the condition is not expected to be fulfilled (i.e. 'but I don't suppose he knows/will know about it'). Compare also:

You could have spared yourself a lot of trouble if you had listened to me	– Je had je heel wat moeilijkheden kunnen besparen, als je naar mij geluisterd had
You could spare yourself a lot of trouble if you listened to me	– Je zou je heel wat moeilijkheden kunnen besparen, als je naar mij zou luisteren

(4) 'indefinite use'

They said they had been to England only once	– Ze zeiden dat ze pas één keer in Engeland geweest waren
He said that all his friends had had the same experience	– Hij zei dat al zijn vrienden dezelfde ervaring hadden gehad
We thought you had lived in London, not in Manchester	– We dachten dat je in Londen had gewoond, niet in Manchester
She had never eaten frogs' legs before, she said	– Ze had nog nooit kikkerbilletjes gegeten, zei ze
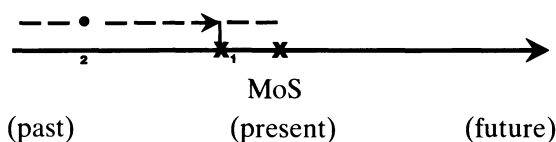
diagram M

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)

This use of the past perfect corresponds to the indefinite use of the present perfect (4.4.3).

(5) 'resultative use'

Mary had sprained her ankle, and could not walk	– Mary had haar enkel verstuikt, en kon niet lopen
John regretted that he had given his bike to Bill	– John had er spijt van dat hij zijn fiets aan Bill gegeven had
Our friends had already left when we arrived	– Onze vrienden waren al vertrokken toen wij aankwamen
He said he was tired because he had walked all the way from the station	– Hij zei dat hij moe was omdat hij helemaal van het station was komen lopen

diagram N

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
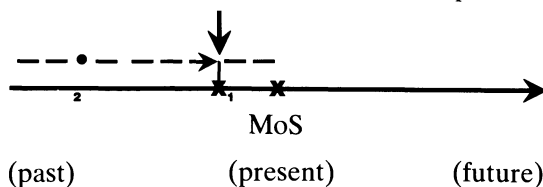
This use corresponds to the resultative use of the present perfect (4.4.3).

(6) 'continuative use'

This use corresponds to the continuative use of the present perfect (4.4.3). An important point here is that Dutch uses a past tense (+ *al/reeds*) where English has a continuative past perfect, e.g. *We woonden al een jaar in Amsterdam toen we jouw broer ontmoetten*, *Ze kenden elkaar toen al jaren*, etc. Note also the following translations:

His father had been dead for years then	– Zijn vader was toen al jaren dood
The meeting had been going on for half an hour when Jim turned up at last	– De vergadering was al een half uur bezig toen Jim tenslotte verscheen
They said they had been here since ten o'clock	– Ze zeiden dat ze hier al vanaf tien uur waren

diagram O

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
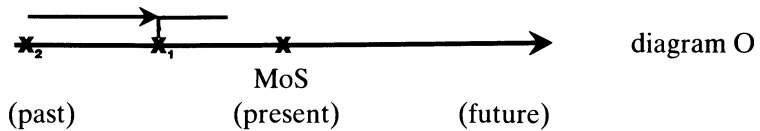
4.4.5   Present future tense

We distinguish the following uses of the present future: (1) the future use and (2) the modal use. For the use of *shall/will*, see also 4.2.3.6 and 4.2.3.8.

(1) 'future use'

It will be warm and sunny all over England tomorrow	– Het wordt morgen in heel Engeland warm en zonnig weer
My train will be in London at 10.45	– Mijn trein komt om 10 uur 45 in Londen aan
She will have a fit when she hears!	– Ze krijgt een beroerte als ze dat hoort!
Time will show who is right	– De tijd zal leren wie gelijk heeft
We shall see what happens	– We zullen zien wat er gebeurt
The new product will be on sale soon	– Het nieuwe product zal binnenkort te koop zijn
The new play will be performed on eight successive nights	– Het nieuwe stuk zal op acht achtereenvolgende avonden worden opgevoerd

diagram P(a)

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)

diagram P(b)

MoS
(past)   (present)   (future)

diagram P(c)

MoS
(past)   (present)   (future)
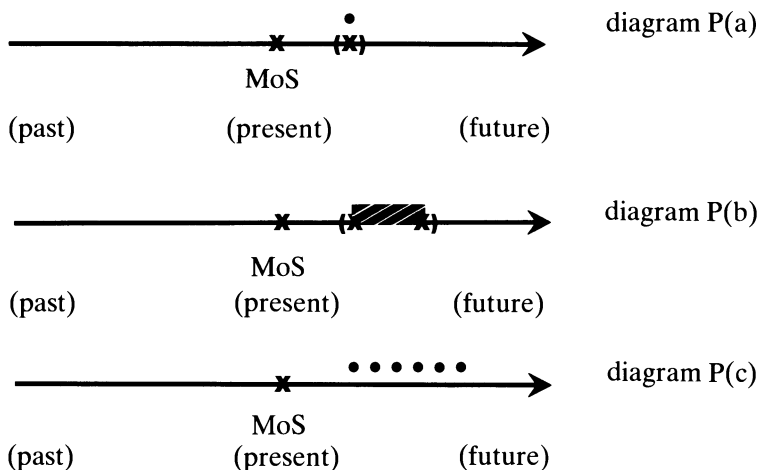
The action, event or state referred to follows MoS (the present moment). It is viewed as happening in the future at a definite or indefinite point, or as covering a definite or indefinite period of time (diagrams (a) and (b)). Reference may also be made to a series of actions or events expected to take place in the future, as illustrated by the last example above (diagram (c)). The round brackets on the time lines in (a) and (b) indicate that the sentence may or may not contain an *explicit* future time adverbial.

It is to be noted that there need be no time interval between MoS and the future action, event or state, e.g.:

> The film will be showing for two weeks from today
> From now on we shall/will meet in my office every Thursday afternoon

We have seen that future *will/shall* + infinitive is often used in cases where Dutch normally has a present tense with future meaning (4.4.1). Dutch *zullen* very rarely occurs in this sense, although there are cases where the use of future *zullen* is obligatory.

(2) 'modal use'

For a discussion of the non–future (or modal) use of the future tense, see 4.2.3.6 and 4.2.3.8.

4.4.6   Past future tense

We distinguish the following uses of the past future tense: (1) the future use

and (2) the modal use. They correspond to the two uses of the present future. The typical function of the past future is to refer to the future from a point of orientation in the past. It has the meaning *future–in–the–past*. For the use of *should/would*, see also 4.2.3.7 and 4.2.3.9.

(1) 'future use'

George wrote to us that he would be in London at 10.45	– George schreef ons dat hij om 10 uur 45 in Londen zou zijn
He hoped that practice would make him a better teacher	– Hij hoopte dat hij door ervaring een betere leraar zou worden
A few years later Mike would die in a car crash	– Enkele jaren later zou Mike omkomen bij een auto–ongeluk
We thought you would not be back until after lunch	– We dachten dat je pas na de lunch terug zou zijn
This was an experience she would never forget	– Dit was een ervaring die ze nooit zou vergeten
Nobody suspected that a few minutes later a bomb would explode	– Niemand vermoedde dat er een paar minuten later een bom zou ontploffen

$$\xrightarrow{\quad x_1 \quad (x_2) \quad\quad x \quad\quad\quad\quad\quad} \qquad \text{diagram Q}$$

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
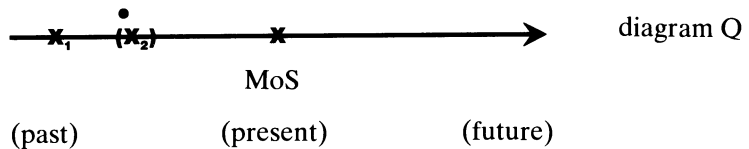
The action, event or state is in the future, seen from a viewpoint in the past. Point 2 on the time line above is 'future' with respect to point of orientation 1. Instead of giving three diagrams, as we did in the case of the present future tense above, we have here given only one. The two additional ones would correspond to the diagrams P (b) and P (c) for the present future tense (4.4.1.5). The brackets around x2 again denote that explicit future time adverbials are optional in sentences of this kind. Explicit time adverbials may be definite or indefinite.

Apart from the form *would/should* + infinitive, English also often uses *was going to* + infinitive and *was to* + infinitive. Dutch normally uses *zou(den)*.

(2) 'modal use'
As we have seen (4.4.2), the construction *would/should* + infinitive is used in a non–future (or modal) sense in the main clause of conditional sentences denoting unreality. For example:

If he knew about it, he would certainly not approve of it	– Als hij er van afwist, zou hij het zeker niet goedkeuren
I would/should lend you the money if I had it	– Ik zou je het geld lenen als ik het had

4.4.7 Present future perfect tense

We distinguish the following uses of the present future perfect: (1) the indefinite use, (2) the resultative use, and (3) the continuative use. What all uses of this tense have in common is that they always denote that the action, event or state referred to is in the past, seen from a viewpoint in the future. The uses of this tense correspond to those of the present perfect *shifted forward*, with the action, event or state preceding the future point of orientation (points 2 and 1 respectively in the diagrams below). Point 2 may follow or precede MoS.

(1) 'indefinite use'

By the end of next week all exam papers will have been marked	– Tegen het einde van volgende week zullen alle examens nagekeken zijn
We hope the rain will have stopped when the match starts	– We hopen dat het niet meer regent als de wedstrijd begint
Will you have eaten yet when you get here?	– Heb je al gegeten als je hier aankomt?

diagram R

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
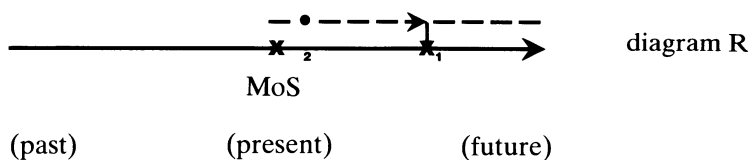
The indefinite use of the present future perfect corresponds to the indefinite use of the present perfect shifted forward. Compare:

I have been to England three times now (*present perfect*)
This time next year I shall have been to England again (*present future perfect*)

Dutch uses either the present future perfect or the present perfect to express the idea of indefinite past–in–the–future. For example:

I am afraid that the fog will not
   have lifted by 8
   o'clock/*...has not lifted...

– Ik ben bang dat de mist om 8 uur
   nog niet zal zijn opgetrokken/is
   opgetrokken

(2) 'resultative use'

By nine o'clock the children will
   have gone to bed

– Tegen negen uur zijn de kinderen
   naar bed

Tomorrow I shall have
   recovered from my illness

– Morgen zal ik wel weer beter
   zijn/...zal ik van mijn ziekte zijn
   hersteld

We hope that all the marathon
   runners will have reached
   the finish by nightfall

– We hopen dat alle marathonlopers
   bij het vallen van de avond de
   eindstreep bereikt zullen hebben

At five o'clock the secretary
   will have left

– Om vijf uur zal de secretaresse
   vertrokken zijn

At the end of the Olympic
   Games many records will
   again have been broken

– Aan het einde van de Olympische
   Spelen zullen er weer veel records
   gebroken zijn

diagram S

MoS
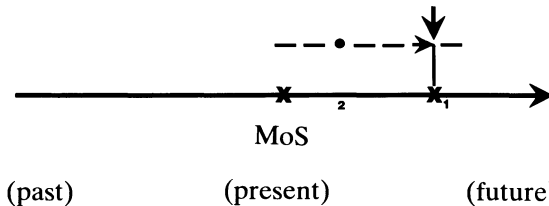
(past)   (present)   (future)

This use corresponds to the resultative use of the present perfect (4.4.3).
Again, Dutch uses either the present future perfect or the present perfect.

(3) 'continuative use'

Next June we shall have lived in
   this house for ten years

– In juni a.s. wonen we al tien jaar in
   dit huis

Next month he will have played
   for England for three years

– De volgende maand komt hij al drie
   jaar voor Engeland uit

My parents will have been
   married for twenty–five
   years in July

– Mijn ouders zijn in juli vijfentwintig
   jaar getrouwd

diagram T

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
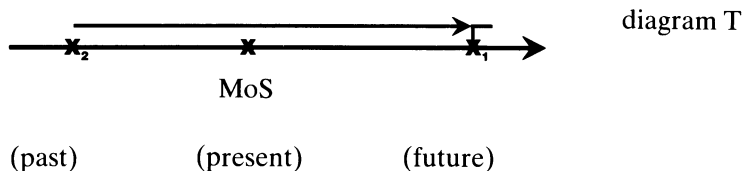
This use corresponds to the continuative use of the present perfect (4.4.3). Note that x2 in this case usually lies before MoS.

Dutch normally uses a present tense (with *al/reeds*) to express a state leading up to the future.

4.4.8   Past future perfect tense

We distinguish the following uses of the past future perfect: (1) the indefinite use, (2) the resultative use, (3) the continuative use, and (4) the modal use. This tense is a present future perfect *shifted back* (4.4.7). Most of the examples given under the uses (1) – (3) may also be interpreted in a modal sense. All uses of the past future perfect denote that the action, state or event referred to (i.e. 3 in the diagrams) takes place or exists *after* a specified point of time in the past (x1), and *before* a point of time (x2), which may precede or follow MoS.

(1) 'indefinite use'

We were told that by the end of next week all exam papers would have been marked	– Ons werd verteld dat tegen het eind van de volgende week alle examens nagekeken zouden zijn
They told us that they would not have eaten yet when they arrived	– Ze vertelden ons dat ze nog niet gegeten zouden hebben als ze aankwamen

diagram U

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
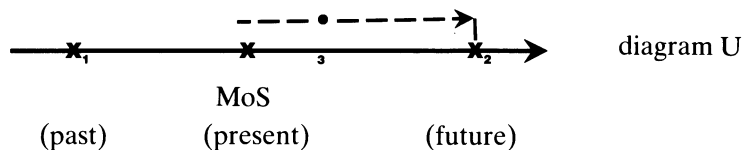
This use corresponds to the indefinite use of the present perfect future (4.4.7). Thus, *By this time next year he will have been to England twice* becomes (in indirect speech) *He said that by this time next year he would have been to England twice.*

(2) 'resultative use'

> She said that by nine o'clock the children would have gone to bed

> – Ze zei dat de kinderen tegen 9 uur naar bed zouden zijn

> The doctor thought that before next Sunday I would have recovered from my illness

> – De dokter dacht dat ik vóór a.s. zondag wel hersteld zou zijn van mijn ziekte

> We were afraid that the train would have left when we arrived at the station

> – We waren bang dat de trein vertrokken zou zijn als we op het station aankwamen

diagram V

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
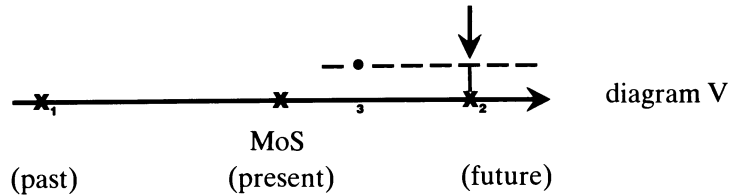
This use corresponds to the resultative use of the present future perfect (4.4.7). Points 2 and 3 may either follow or precede MoS.

(3) 'continuative use'

> He reminded us that in June we would/should have lived in this house for ten years

> – Hij herinnerde ons eraan dat we in juni (al) tien jaar in dit huis zouden wonen

> He said that at the beginning of next season he would have played for England for three years

> – Hij zei dat hij aan het begin van het volgende seizoen al drie jaar voor Engeland zou uitkomen

diagram W

MoS

(past)   (present)   (future)
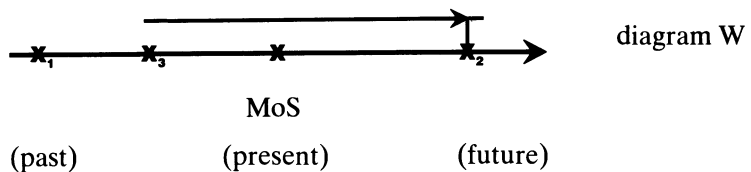
This use corresponds to the continuative use of the present future perfect (4.4.7). In this case, x3 typically precedes MoS and may precede or follow x1. This usage is not common and is often replaced by a present future perfect.

(4) 'modal use'

Like the construction *would/should* + infinitive discussed above (4.4.6), *would/should* + *have* + participle can also be used modally in the main clauses of conditional sentences denoting unreality. For example:

If he had known about it, he would certainly not have approved of it	– Als hij ervan op de hoogte was geweest, zou hij het zeker niet goed gevonden hebben
The prisoner would not have escaped if somebody had not helped him	– De gevangene zou niet ontsnapt zijn, als niet iemand hem geholpen had
The train would have arrived at 10.45, if there had been no accident	– De trein zou om 10 uur 45 zijn aangekomen, als er geen ongeluk was gebeurd

Sentences like these denote that the condition mentioned was not fulfilled: the action, event or state referred to did not occur. Again it should be noted that the construction with *would* cannot normally be used in these subordinate clauses.

4.5 Aspect

The grammatical term *aspect* is used to refer to the contrast expressed by the *progressive* and *non–progressive* forms of verbs in English. The progressive form (denoting 'durative aspect') usually implies that an action, event or state is going on during a particular period of time or at a given moment, and that the action, event or state described is temporary. In other words, the most common use of the progressive is to indicate that some action is (or was, or will be) in progress at a particular moment that the speaker has in mind. If the activity is not viewed as incomplete or still in progress at a particular point in time, the progressive cannot be used. A common Dutch error is to use the progressive for any kind of duration, irrespective of whether the activity is related to a reference–point in time. For example:

    *It was raining for hours and hours yesterday, so we looked for shelter
    *He took his exam at the end of last term. He was swotting for it day and
        night

The non–progressive (or *simple*) form of the verb (denoting 'non–durative as-

pect') does not express limited duration or temporariness. Non–progressive forms normally refer to permanent situations, completed actions, or events of which the duration is felt to be irrelevant.

As we have seen (2.3.2), the progressive in English consists of a form of the auxiliary *be* followed by an *–ing* participle. Note that all eight tenses listed in section 4.4 can take the durative aspect. Thus each tense has a progressive and a non–progressive form. For example:

She sings	She is singing
She sang	She was singing
She has sung	She has been singing
She had sung	She had been singing
She will sing	She will be singing
She would sing	She would be singing
She will have sung	She will have been singing
She would have sung	She would have been singing

Progressive verb phrases can also occur in the passive (*is being sung, was being sung*, etc.), but phrases containing both Perfect, Passive and Progressive (*has been being watched, will have been being built*, etc.) are not very common. Modal auxiliaries may be followed by progressive infinitives (e.g. *He may be waiting, He could have been working*). For the spelling and pronunciation of *–ing* forms, see App. II and III.

Compare the following sentence–pairs:

(1) a. Look! It is raining
    b. It rains a lot in this part of the country
(2) a. John was kissing Mary when we entered the room
    b. John kissed Mary when she entered the room, and then walked out
(3) a. Simon is driving very carefully these days
    b. Simon always drives very carefully
(4) a. Arthur was playing squash this afternoon
    b. Arthur first played squash this afternoon, and then went home
(5) a. Mark is living in England now
    b. Mark lives in England

The actions, events or states described in the (a) examples above often start before a given point in time and continue after it. Some of the (b) examples refer to characteristic events, non–temporary habitual actions and more or less permanent states (see (1b), (3b) and (5b). The remaining examples, (2b) and

(4b), denote the occurrence of some activity, usually as part of a *sequence* of activities, without duration or temporariness being emphasized by the verb form used.

The idea of limited duration may shade off into that of *incompleteness*, i.e. the action is not complete, has not ended. Note, for example, the difference in meaning between the following pairs:

(6) a. I was reading a very interesting book last night
     b. I read a very interesting book last night
(7) a. Somebody was saying that you wanted to give up English
     b. Somebody said that you wanted to give up English

Sentence (6a) implies that the speaker did not finish the book he was reading, whereas (6b) suggests that he did. Of the second pair, (7a) sounds more cautious than (7b); (7a) sounds like a request for further information, in which the speaker suggests that he may not have heard the whole story. Sentence (7b) sounds more factual and definitive; the speaker seems less interested in confirmation of what he has heard.

The following sentences also contain progressive forms denoting limited duration in some sense:

I am living with Peggy and Roger at the moment	– Ik woon momenteel bij Peggy en Roger
Don't disturb me tonight. I will be working on my thesis	– Wil je me vanavond niet storen? Ik werk dan aan mijn proefschrift
The phone rang while she was having a bath	– De telefoon ging terwijl ze in bad zat
We were watching a football match on TV last Saturday when there was a power failure	– We zaten afgelopen zaterdag naar een voetbalwedstrijd op T.V. te kijken toen de stroom uitviel
When I woke up this morning the sun was shining and the birds were singing	– Toen ik vanochtend wakker werd, scheen de zon en zongen de vogels
He is seeing a lot of Mary these days	– Hij ontmoet Mary tegenwoordig heel vaak
This time last year I was swimming in the Pacific	– Vorig jaar om deze tijd zwom ik in de Stille Oceaan

All the above sentences in English denote activities or situations that are limited in duration, including temporary events and temporary habits. For perma-

nent states and habitual actions English normally uses the non–progressive forms.

4.5.1   Uses of the progressive

Apart from expressing (1) limited duration, as noted above, the progressive is sometimes used (2) to refer to future time or (3) to denote persistent or continuous activity. Examples of the *future use* of the progressive are:

> Rehearsals are beginning tomorrow week
> Jean and Frank are coming to dinner tonight
> Penny is giving a party next Saturday
> Eric is leaving for Canada on Monday
> Arthur is playing squash tomorrow

It should be noted that the past progressive denoting future–in–the–past implies that an activity was proposed, but it may not in fact have taken place. The reference may also be to a proposed activity in the future, after MoS. For example:

> I was meeting Mr Moss last Tuesday, but he cancelled the appointment
> You were driving into town this afternoon, weren't you? Can I come with
>   you in that case?
> Arthur was playing squash tomorrow, but he has got a bad cold

The following examples illustrate the third use of the progressive, that of persistent or continuous activity. Sentences like these often have an *emotive* overtone:

> John's wife is constantly nagging about money
> He is forever finding fault with me
> She is continually asking me the same question
> George was always bragging about his days in the army

4.5.2   Dynamic and stative

In connection with the use of the progressive we shall distinguish between *dynamic* and *stative* verbs in English. Dynamic verbs are those that are capable of occurring in the progressive form. They usually denote actions, events, pro-

cesses or states which can be thought of as compatible with the notion of limited duration or temporariness expressed by the progressive (see the examples given so far). Most verbs in English are dynamic. They include: *hit, jump, kick, kiss, play, sing, walk, work, write, change, look, listen, die, grow, increase, leave, lose, rain, read, search, wait,* etc. Given the right context, verbs like these can occur in the progressive. Additional examples of sentences containing such dynamic (or action) verbs:

> The boy jumped into the water
> The boy was jumping up and down

> The students listened to the professor
> The students were listening to the professor

> He waited all afternoon, but she did not turn up
> He was waiting for Mary when I saw him

Stative verbs are those that do not normally occur in the progressive (in specific cases a small number of these verbs can be used in the progressive, however). Stative verbs typically refer to permanent states rather than to actions in progress or temporary states. Consequently they are usually incompatible with the notion of limited duration or temporariness. The category of stative verbs includes:

I. Verbs which contain the idea of 'being' or 'having': *appear, apply to, be, belong to, consist of, contain, cost, deserve, differ from, exist, have, matter, mean, possess, resemble, stand for*, etc. Examples:

> His story appears (to be) true (*...is appearing...)
> This book is John's/belongs to John (*...is being.../*...is belonging...)
> John deserves a reward for what he has done (*...is deserving...)
> His new house has five bedrooms/contains five bedrooms (*...is having.../*...is containing...)
> That fur coat costs 500 pounds (*...is costing...)
> Fairies do not exist (*...are not existing...)
> That does not really matter (*...is not...mattering...)
> Charlotte resembles her mother in many ways (*...is resembling...)

Some of the stative verbs mentioned above also have dynamic senses. The verb *appear*, for example, is stative in the sense of 'seem (to be)', but dynamic in most other senses, including '(of an actor, etc.) come before the public'. For example:

He is now appearing in a show in the West End (='coming before the public')

Other examples of verbs that also have dynamic senses are *exist*, *cost* and *have*, as in:

John has been existing on tea and bread recently (='has been keeping himself alive')
This call is costing me a small fortune (='is causing me the expenditure or loss of...')
The children were having a whale of a time while their parents were away
We were having dinner when the phone rang

With regard to the verb *be* it should be noted that one can say, for example:

You are being very unpleasant/naughty

But not:

*You are being very tall

since, whereas *unpleasant* and *naughty* denote activity or behaviour of limited duration, *tall* refers to a permanent characteristic, one which does not vary according to circumstances. This reflects the distinction between *be* in the sense of 'behave in a certain way' (dynamic) and 'be something by nature' (stative).

The important point to be noted here is that stative verbs or verbs in their stative senses cannot normally occur in the progressive.

However, even stative verbs and verbs with stative senses can occasionally take the progressive, in particular when the speaker wants to denote a process or a (gradual) change in a situation.

Examples:

People are belonging to fewer societies and clubs these days
Charlotte is resembling her mother more and more every day

II. Verbs of involuntary perception: *feel*, *hear*, *see*, *smell*, *taste*, etc. Examples:

I felt a sharp pain in my stomach (*...was feeling...)
Last night in the hotel we heard a strange noise in the room next to ours (*...were hearing...)

> We saw a lot of goldfinches and lapwings on our walk yesterday (*...were seeing...)
> I smell gas (*...am smelling...)
> It feels/smells/tastes/looks/sounds good (*...is feeling, etc.)

These stative verbs are again not to be confused with the verbs *feel, hear, see*, etc. when used in a dynamic sense (e.g. *He was feeling the quality of the cloth/ Which judge will be hearing the case?/He is seeing a lot of Barbara these days*).

   As with the verbs under I above, some of the verbs listed here as verbs of involuntary perception can also be used in the progressive to denote a process or a (gradual) change in a situation. Examples:

> I am hearing it quite clearly now
> We are hearing strange things about you
> Are you seeing any better with these new glasses?

Note that the verbs *hear, see* and *smell* in the 'involuntary perception' sense can also be used in the progressive. There seems to be little difference in meaning between the progressive and non–progressive forms here. For example:

> We are hearing lots of strange noises all the time/We hear...
> He said he had been smelling gas all day/...had smelt...
> We have been seeing a lot of birds in our garden this winter/We have seen...

Some of these verbs can also be used to refer to voluntary, deliberate actions, in which case they are dynamic and allow the progressive. This difference in meaning is illustrated by the following pairs of examples:

> (1) a. He suddenly smelt gas
>   b. He was smelling the perfume in her hair
> (2) a. I (can) taste something funny in this soup
>   b. He is tasting the soup to see if it is OK

When *feel* refers to a bodily sensation or a physical condition it can sometimes occur in either the non–progressive or the progressive form; there is no difference in meaning between *I feel hungry* and *I am feeling hungry* (but not, as we have seen: *I was feeling a sharp pain in my stomach*). Other verbs of bodily sensation, like *ache, hurt, itch*, can also occur in the non–progressive or the progressive form; thus, *My leg hurts* is equivalent to *My leg is hurting*.

III. Verbs referring to a state of mind or an emotion: *assume, believe, expect (=suppose), feel (=think), forget, hate, hope, imagine, know, suppose, think, understand, want, wish*, etc.. Examples:

I believe everything you say (*...am believing...)
'Do you like yoghurt?' – 'No, I hate it' (*are you liking...–*...am hating...)
Mary knows French and Spanish (*...is knowing...)
We have always regarded them as friends (*...have been regarding...)
Only John understood what was happening (*...was understanding...)
I wish you had not said that (*...am wishing...)

However, most of these verbs have closely related dynamic senses (e.g. *I was thinking about something he said yesterday*). As with the verbs under I and II above, some of the stative verbs listed here can also occur in the progressive to denote a process or a (gradual) change in a situation. For example:

I am liking Oxford very much now
We are understanding Professor Ricks better this year

In Dutch, the durative aspect is expressed by a simple present tense or by a construction consisting of *staan te, zitten te, lopen te, bezig zijn te* or *zijn aan het* + infinitive. As in English, these forms are mainly used to denote limited duration and temporariness, but they can also occasionally denote persistent behaviour (see 4.5.1 above). The Dutch constructions are not used, however, to refer to future time.

Dutch also has a few expressions consisting of the verb *zijn* + present participle: *doende zijn, lijdende zijn, stervende zijn*. They are rare, and occur mainly in formal written language (e.g. *De koning is al lang lijdende aan een ongeneeslijke ziekte; hij is nu stervende* (*The king has long been suffering from an incurable disease; he is now dying*)). Also, Du. *De zaak is nog hangende* corresponds to E. *The matter is still pending*.

The following sentences illustrate the expression of the durative aspect in Dutch with the corresponding English sentences:

The police are investigating the matter	– De politie is bezig de zaak te onderzoeken
It happened while I was working in the garden	– Het gebeurde terwijl ik in de tuin werkte/aan het werken was
He was just explaining to me what I had done wrong, when you entered	– Hij was net bezig mij uit te leggen wat ik verkeerd had gedaan, toen jij binnenkwam

George is writing a letter to his girlfriend	– George zit een brief aan zijn vriendin te schrijven
When I woke up this morning, it was raining	– Toen ik vanochtend wakker werd, regende het
Have you been waiting long?	– Sta je al lang te wachten?
If you come at three, I will probably be working in the garden	– Als je om drie uur komt, ben ik waarschijnlijk in de tuin aan het werken

4.6 Mood

Moods (Du. *modi* or *wijzen*) are (groups of) finite verb forms which serve to indicate whether what is expressed is a fact, a wish, or a command. In English and Dutch, as in many other languages, we can distinguish three moods: the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, and the *imperative* moods (see section 2.3.2). The subjunctive and the imperative moods in English each have only one form, viz. the base of the verb (e.g. *wait*), whereas the indicative mood in English consists of three different forms, viz. two forms in the present tense (e.g. *waits* and *wait*) and one in the past tense (e.g. *waited*). Dutch has a greater variety of forms than English in the different moods. Dutch has the *aantonende wijs* (e.g. (ik) *loop*, (hij) *loopt*, (wij) *lopen*), the *aanvoegende wijs* (e.g. (het) *ga* (je goed)) and the *gebiedende wijs* (e.g. *kom* (hier), *komt* (allen)). Consider also:

Indicative mood:	Aantonende wijs:
He always *waits* for her/ They always *wait* for her/We always *waited* for her	– Hij *wacht* altijd op haar/ Zij *wachten* altijd op haar/ Wij *wachtten* altijd op haar
Subjunctive mood:	Aanvoegende wijs:
I insist/insisted that he *wait* for her	– Ik dring/drong erop aan dat hij op haar *wacht/wachtte*
Imperative mood:	Gebiedende wijs:
Wait for her!	– *Wacht* op haar!

In the following sections we shall only comment briefly on the subjunctive mood and the imperative mood.

4.6.1   *The subjunctive mood*

The subjunctive mood occurs very rarely in modern British English and in modern Dutch, and is mostly restricted to formal style. It is used (a) in a small number of fixed expressions, (b) in subordinate *that*–clauses after verbs expressing a wish, a suggestion, a hope, an obligation, etc. (e.g. *demand, insist, require, order, command, suggest, ask, recommend*), but also after other constructions expressing similar ideas (e.g. *It is important/necessary that...* or *There was a suggestion that...*), and (c) in certain open conditional clauses and concessive clauses. Here are some examples first of fixed subjunctive expressions:

Long live the Queen!	– Lang leve de Koningin!
Come what may,...	– Wat er ook gebeurt,...
So be it then!	– Het zij zo!
Heaven forbid that he should do something like that again	– De hemel verhoede dat hij zoiets weer doet
Suffice it to say that...	– Het zij voldoende te zeggen dat...

The two languages do not always have subjunctive equivalents. For example, Dutch *Het ga je goed!* corresponds to English *Good luck to you!* It should be noted that English often has an alternative construction with the modal auxiliary *may*, and Dutch with *moge(n)*, e.g. *However that may be...*: *Hoe dat ook moge zijn...*, or *May Heaven forbid that...*: *Moge de Hemel verhoeden dat....*

The following English sentences (with their Dutch equivalents) illustrate the use of the subjunctive mood in subordinate *that*–clauses after the above–mentioned verbs and expressions, and in open conditional clauses and concessive clauses:

I demand that John leave at once	– Ik eis dat John onmiddellijk vertrekt
The committee recommended that the company invest money in North Sea oil	– De commissie beval aan dat de maatschappij geld zou investeren in Noordzee–olie
He said it was important that she send in her application before the end of the month	– Hij zei dat het belangrijk was dat zij haar sollicitatie voor het einde van de maand instuurde
Is it necessary that the guests bring their own sheets and towels?	– Is het nodig dat de gasten hun eigen lakens en handdoeken meebrengen?
There was a suggestion that the boy be sent to a boarding school	– Er werd voorgesteld de jongen naar een kostschool te sturen

Mary had insisted that he visit her	– Mary had erop aangedrongen dat hij haar zou bezoeken
If any person be found guilty...	– Indien iemand schuldig bevonden wordt,...
Whatever be the reason for it...	– Wat er ook de reden van mag zijn...

As these examples show, the subjunctive in English has only one form, which is used for all persons (incl. the 3rd person sing. present tense) and for both the present and the past tenses. In many cases, the formal subjunctive construction is replaced in BrE by a *should* + infinitive or by a *to*–infinitive construction. For example:

> I demand that John should leave at once
> Mary had insisted that we should visit her (also: Mary had insisted on our visiting her)
> There was a suggestion to send the boy to a boarding school

Note that *be* is the subjunctive form of the verb *be* in all persons and in the past and present tenses, matching indicative *am, is, are, was* and *were*. The verb *be* also has a separate past subjunctive form *were*, which is hypothetical in meaning (expressing unreality) and which is used in all persons in conditional clauses, after *I wish* and after the imperatives *suppose* and *imagine*. The indicative form *was* can also be used in the 1st and 3rd persons sing. past tense, and is less formal than *were*:

> If I were/was a millionaire,...
> If the bank were to lend us the money, we could buy a new house
> Were the bank to lend us the money,...
> He treated us as if we were children
> I wish Bill were/was more understanding
> Suppose/imagine he were/was here

In the inverted conditional clause *Were the bank to lend us money,...* (the third example above), *were* cannot be replaced by *was*.

The expressions *As it were* (Du. *Als het ware*) and *If I were you* (Du. *Als ik jou was*) have no alternatives with *was* for *were*, either.

The subjunctive is more common in AmE than in BrE, where it is regarded as characteristic of legalistic or archaic style. However, in informal conversation Americans also prefer to use the indicative mood, a construction with *should*, or an infinitive construction.

4.6.2   *The imperative mood*

The form of the imperative (2.5.4.3) in English is identical with the base of the verb (e.g. *wait, come, jump, work*). Dutch can be said to have two forms, one singular, the other plural/polite, but the latter is very formal (e.g. *loop/loopt, werk/werkt*). Imperative sentences will be dealt with in 6.2.2.

5: ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PHRASES

ADVERBS AND ADVERB PHRASES

PREPOSITIONS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

5.1   Introduction

In this chapter we deal with three word classes: adjectives, adverbs and prepositions. For each word class we specify the syntactic functions that its members can have in the sentence and/or the phrase. We also deal with three phrases: adjective phrases, adverb phrases and prepositional phrases. Each of these is discussed in terms of its structure. The comparison of adjectives and of adverbs is described in 5.2.3 and 5.3.3 respectively.

5.2   Adjectives and adjective phrases

5.2.1   Adjectives

5.2.1.1   Attributive and predicative adjectives

This is a syntactic classification, based on the way in which adjectives function in the structure of the noun phrase and the structure of the sentence. Attributive adjectives are used as premodifiers in the structure of noun phrases, while predicative adjectives function at sentence level as subject attribute or object attribute. Most adjectives in English and Dutch can be used attributively as well as predicatively (on adjectives in postposition see 5.2.1.2). Examples:

Attributive use:

a shy girl	– een verlegen meisje
his stupid remarks	– zijn domme opmerkingen

Predicative use:

Your brother is shy	– Je broer is verlegen
I find his remarks stupid	– Ik vind zijn opmerkingen dom

Both languages have a few adjectives that are used either attributively or predicatively, but not in both functions:

Attributive use only:

the entire building	– het hele gebouw
sheer nonsense	– volslagen onzin
a previous occasion	– een vorige gelegenheid

In both languages adjectives denoting materials can be used attributively:

a gold watch	– een gouden horloge
a wooden desk	– een houten bureau

Cf.:

This desk is made of wood	– Dit bureau is van hout

When used as an adjective, the word *very* is always attributive:

the very man we need	– precies de man die we nodig hebben
the very idea	– alleen al het idee
his very words	– letterlijk wat hij zei

Predicative use only:

She was alone	– Ze was alleen
He looked well	– Hij zag er goed uit
The baby was awake	– De baby was wakker

Note that the adjectives *afraid* and *ill* can only be used predicatively in English,

but that their Dutch equivalents *bang* and *ziek* can be predicative as well as attributive. Cf.:

The soldiers were afraid	– De soldaten waren bang
The frightened soldiers	– De bange soldaten
The child is ill	– Het kind is ziek
The sick child	– Het zieke kind

Note also the different uses of *alive* (always predicative) and its attributive counterpart *live*:

The victim was still alive	– Het slachtoffer leefde nog
A live dolphin	– Een levende dolfijn

In the examples below the verb is followed by a predicative adjective in English, not by an adverb:

The wine tasted good	– De wijn smaakte goed
That fish smells bad	– Die vis ruikt bedorven
Your proposal sounds fine	– Uw voorstel klinkt goed
Silk feels soft	– Zijde voelt zacht aan

As the examples above illustrate, Dutch attributive adjectives sometimes take an inflectional suffix –*e*. Cf. also:

een duur huis	een dure auto
het dure huis	de dure auto
dure huizen	dure auto's

We need not go into this matter here, except to point out that English adjectives never change in form, except for the degrees of comparison (see 5.2.3).

An important point of difference in the use of adjectives is that Dutch can use adjectives independently with a following count–noun understood. This is impossible in English, which requires the pro–forms *one* or *ones*. Cf.:

Jim has a big car and a small one	– Jim heeft een grote auto en een kleine
They sell expensive houses but also cheap ones	– Ze verkopen dure huizen maar ook goedkope

5.2.1.2   Adjectives in postmodification

Apart from being used attributively and/or predicatively, adjectives can also be used postpositively. In that case they follow the noun (or pronoun) they modify. Cf.:

China proper	– het eigenlijke China
the students present	– de aanwezige studenten
the politicians involved	– de betrokken politici

Postposition of adjectives occurs in English after quantifiers ending in *–body*, *–one* and *–thing*. Dutch has postposition after a few words such as *iets, niets* and *wat*, in which case the postpositive adjective takes an inflectional *–s*. Otherwise Dutch requires premodification or a relative clause. Cf.:

somebody interesting	– een interessant iemand
something better	– iets beters
something funny	– wat leuks
nothing new	– niets nieuws
anyone qualified	– iedereen die bevoegd is
everything English	– alles wat Engels is

Postposition also occurs in English after *somewhere* and *anywhere*:

It must be somewhere near	– Het moet ergens in de buurt zijn
Are you going anywhere nice?	– Gaan jullie naar een leuke plaats?

Finally, postposition is found in English when the adjective is further modified. Dutch usually requires a full (rather than a reduced) relative clause. Examples:

a woman intelligent enough to become President	– een vrouw die intelligent genoeg is om president te worden
the persons responsible for this	– de personen die hiervoor verantwoordelijk zijn

5.2.1.3   Stative and dynamic adjectives

This is a semantic, rather than a syntactic, classification: adjectives like *old, tall* and *fat* are said to be stative, and adjectives like *careful, jealous* and *patient* are

said to be dynamic. This classification is important: dynamic adjectives can be used in imperative sentences and can occur with *be* in the progressive aspect, whereas stative adjectives cannot. Since Dutch lacks the progressive aspect, the stative/dynamic contrast is only apparent in imperative sentences in Dutch. Cf.:

*Be old	–	*Wees oud
Be careful	–	Wees voorzichtig

On gradable and non–gradable adjectives see 5.2.3.2.

5.2.2   The structure of the adjective phrase

Adjective phrases have comparable structures in English and Dutch: the head of an adjective phrase is always an adjective, which may be preceded by a pre-modifier and followed by a postmodifier:

   (Premodifier) – Head – (Postmodifier)

This structure is illustrated by the following examples, which contain all three elements:

(He was) very fond of her	–	(Hij was) zeer gesteld op haar
(I am) so glad to see you again	–	(Ik ben) zo blij je weer te zien

Both languages also have adjective phrases with discontinuous structures, that is structures in which the premodifier and the postmodifier are interdependent. Examples:

(It was) so difficult that I did not understand it	–	(Het was) zo moeilijk dat ik het niet begreep
(He was) less modest than he purported to be	–	(Hij was) minder bescheiden dan hij voorgaf

5.2.2.1   Premodificational structures

The head of an adjective phrase can be premodified by intensifying and other kinds of adverbs:

very interesting	– heel interessant
most enjoyable	– erg leuk
exceptionally rude	– buitengewoon grof
linguistically important	– taalkundig belangrijk

Note that, if the premodifier is one of the items *as, so, too* or *however*, the sequence premodifier + adjective precedes the indefinite article in English, but not in Dutch:

as difficult a theory as
    Einstein's
	– een even moeilijke theorie als die
	    van Einstein

so strange a coincidence	– zo'n vreemde samenloop van omstandigheden
too easy an exercise	– een te gemakkelijke oefening
however small a contribution	– wat voor een kleine bijdrage dan ook

When the premodifier is *how*, Dutch has no corresponding sequence of indefinite article + *hoe* + adjective:

| How good a President was
    Kennedy? | – Hoe goed was Kennedy als
    president? |

In both languages adjectives can be preceded by noun phrases denoting measure, as in

| ten years old | – tien jaar oud |
| five miles long | – vijf mijl lang |

In Dutch we also find adjective phrases whose head is premodified by other types of noun phrases or by a prepositional phrase. In these cases English requires postmodification. Cf.:

fed up with all that gossip	– al dat geroddel moe
worth his salary	– zijn salaris waard
married to an Englishwoman	– met een Engelse getrouwd
interested in mathematics	– in wiskunde geïnteresseerd

5.2.2.2 The adjective phrase head

The head of an adjective phrase is always realized by an adjective. On the use of adjectives as noun phrase heads see 3.3.4.

5.2.2.3 Postmodificational structures

The adjective phrase head can be postmodified by the adverb *enough* (Dutch *genoeg*):

His parents are rich enough   – Zijn ouders zijn rijk genoeg

Adjective phrases containing the postmodifier *enough* can be used attributively in English. The corresponding construction with *genoeg* cannot be so used in Dutch:

This is a common enough   – Dit is een heel gewone uitdrukking
    expression

Postmodification is also possible by means of a prepositional phrase, a finite clause or a *to*–infinitive clause. Examples:

angry with her father   – boos op haar vader
faithful to his ideals   – trouw aan zijn idealen

pleased that you are here   – blij dat je er bent
older than we thought   – ouder dan we dachten

inclined to believe anything   – geneigd om alles te geloven
difficult to prove   – moeilijk te bewijzen

The postmodifying infinitive can have a subject of its own in English. This construction is not found in Dutch. Cf.:

That record will be hard for you   – Die plaat zul je moeilijk kunnen
    to find   vinden
She was eager for me to come   – Ze wilde graag dat ik ook kwam
    too
I should be sorry for her to   – Ik zou het erg vinden als ze wegging
    leave

The following examples show that the English adjective + infinitive pattern is not always possible in Dutch:

She was stupid not to turn up	– Het was dom van haar om niet te verschijnen
Nancy is quick to take offence	– Nancy voelt zich gauw beledigd
The Foreign Secretary was prompt to react	– De Minister van Buitenlandse Zaken reageerde prompt
We were furious to hear about it	– We waren woedend toen we ervan hoorden
That boy is impossible to teach	– Het is onmogelijk om die jongen iets te leren
Joan is difficult to talk to about her husband	– Het is moeilijk om met Joan over haar man te praten

The adjectives *worth* and *busy* are postmodified by an *–ing* participle clause in English:

That book is worth reading	– Dat boek is de moeite van het lezen waard
She was busy varnishing her nails	– Ze was bezig haar nagels te lakken

5.2.3   The comparison of adjectives

5.2.3.1   The degrees of comparison

Adjectives in English and Dutch have three degrees of comparison:

the absolute (or positive) degree	:	rich	– rijk
		intelligent	– intelligent
the comparative degree	:	richer	– rijker
		more intelligent	– intelligenter
the superlative degree	:	richest	– rijkst
		most intelligent	– intelligentst

These forms can be used to compare the degree to which two (or more) persons, objects, etc. possess a particular quality or property. Cf.:

John and Henry are both rich	– John en Henry zijn beiden rijk
John is richer than Henry	– John is rijker dan Henry
Of my children John is the richest	– Van mijn kinderen is John het rijkst

5.2.3.2   Gradable and non–gradable adjectives

The comparative and superlative degrees of comparison are only found with so–called gradable adjectives. Gradable adjectives are those that can be modified by intensifiers like *very, so* and *extremely*. All dynamic adjectives and most stative adjectives are gradable. Examples are words like *strong, clever* and *modern*. Among those that are non–gradable are adjectives like *equal, unique, dead* and *left* as well as adjectives denoting nationality or provenance (such as *English, Dutch* and *European*) and technical adjectives (such as *chemical, atomic* and *nuclear*). The gradable/non–gradable contrast also applies to adjectives in Dutch. Cf.:

a very strong reaction	– een zeer sterke reactie
*a very chemical reaction	– *een zeer chemische reactie

Adjectives like *English* and *Dutch* can be preceded by intensifiers, however, when they are used to refer to ways of behaving or thinking rather than to nationality. In that case they are gradable.

The way she dresses is very English	– De manier waarop ze zich kleedt is erg Engels

5.2.3.3   The basis of comparison

The basis of comparison need not be made explicit, as in

Our products are cheaper	– Onze producten zijn goedkoper

In this sentence the more expensive product is not mentioned explicitly. If the basis of comparison is made explicit by means of a comparative clause, this clause can optionally contain a verb, including one of the pro–forms *do, does* or *did* in English. As a rule, Dutch does not allow verb forms in this type of clause. Cf.:

Patrick was as keen as his sister (was)	– Patrick was even enthousiast als zijn zus
You can afford a more expensive car than I (can)	– Jij kunt je een duurdere auto veroorloven dan ik
She writes better essays than you (do)	– Ze schrijft betere opstellen dan jij

5.2.3.4   The forms of the comparative and the superlative

One way of forming the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison in English is by means of the endings *–er* and *–est*. On adjectives that take these suffixes see 2.3.3. On spelling rules see Appendix II. A second way of forming the degrees of comparison in English is by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*. This is known as periphrastic comparison. *More* and *most* are commonly used with adjectives of two or more syllables (see 2.3.3).

Many compound adjectives of the type *well–informed, good–natured, kind–hearted* and *bad–tempered* can be compared both by inflection and periphrastically. Thus we find *better-informed* by the side of *more well–informed*. Some compound adjectives can only be compared periphrastically. They include *well–to–do, old–fashioned, narrow–minded, far–fetched* and *widespread*:

Tom belongs to one of the most well–to–do families in town	– Tom behoort tot een van de meest welgestelde families in de stad

In Dutch, some adjectives can be compared by means of *meer* and *meest*. The vast majority, however, take the suffixes *–er* and *–st*, no matter whether they are monosyllabic adjectives or adjectives of two or more syllables. Cf.:

large/larger/largest	– groot/groter/grootst
careful/more careful/most careful	– voorzichtig/voorzichtiger/voorzichtigst

A few adjectives in English have two forms for the comparative and/or two forms for the superlative. These are often different in meaning. The most important are:

far	– farther/further	– farthest/furthest
old	– older/elder	– oldest/eldest
late	– later/latter	– latest/last
little	– less/lesser	– least
near	– nearer	– nearest/next

Farther and *further* may both be used to refer to distance, but *further* is preferred in the sense of 'additional'. *Farthest* and *furthest* are interchangeable.

Move farther/further down the bus, please	– Wilt U alstublieft aansluiten?
No further instances of cruelty have been reported	– Er zijn geen verdere meldingen van mishandeling binnengekomen

Older and *oldest* may be used in all cases, both attributively and predicatively. *Elder* and *eldest* may be used instead of *older* and *oldest* only when attributive and before words referring to family relationships (i.e. before words like *brother, sister, son*, etc.):

My oldest/eldest brother seems to look older every day	– Mijn oudste broer lijkt er met de dag ouder uit te zien

Later and *last* are typically used with reference to time. *Latter* refers to sequence, whereas *latest* means 'most recent'.

He arrived on a later bus than we had expected	– Hij kwam met een latere bus dan we verwacht hadden
Give me one last chance to do better	– Geef me nog een laatste kans om het beter te doen
Trade recovered in the latter half of the year	– De handel herstelde zich in de tweede helft van het jaar
And now, for the latest news on the embassy siege, over to our outside broadcast unit	– En nu, voor het laatste nieuws over de gijzeling op de ambassade, over naar onze verslaggevers ter plaatse

Note that *last* means 'most recent' in

the last World War	– de laatste Wereldoorlog
the last century	– de vorige eeuw

The comparative form of *little* as a quantifier is *less*:

I have little time and even less inclination to help you	– Ik heb weinig tijd en nog minder zin om je te helpen

Strictly speaking, the form *fewer* should be used with plural count nouns. However, *less* occurs frequently with plural count nouns in informal usage:

There are now fewer opportunities for graduates than there used to be	– Er zijn thans minder mogelijkheden voor afgestudeerden dan vroeger
This year less students have enrolled for the course than last year	– Dit jaar hebben zich minder studenten voor de cursus ingeschreven dan vorig jaar

Lesser is used attributively with count nouns in the sense of 'less important':

Randolph Churchill was a far lesser man than his father	– Randolph Churchill was een veel minder belangrijke man dan zijn vader

The superlative *least* is used before singular nouns. Before plural nouns English has *fewest*:

They gave us the least trouble	– Zij bezorgden ons de minste last
Who made the fewest mistakes?	– Wie heeft de minste fouten gemaakt?

Nearest usually means 'least far away', 'closest', whereas *next* is used in the sense of 'immediately following':

Where is the nearest post office, please?	– Waar is het dichtstbijzijnde postkantoor?
Get out at the next stop	– Stap bij de volgende halte uit

5.2.3.5   The use of the comparative

The comparative is chiefly used when a comparison is made between two persons or objects or between two sets of persons or objects:

Women are more romantic than men	– Vrouwen zijn romantischer dan mannen
London is bigger than Amsterdam	– Londen is groter dan Amsterdam

In cases like the following, which involve comparison of two persons or objects, formal English prefers the comparative, where Dutch has a superlative:

George is the younger of the two brothers	– George is de jongste van de twee broers
The greater part of what he had to say was waffle	– Het grootste deel van wat hij te zeggen had was geklets

In such cases the superlative may be used in informal English, but this usage is frowned upon by many people:

Ruby is the oldest of my two daughters	– Ruby is de oudste van mijn twee dochters

The following examples illustrate some important constructions involving comparatives in English and Dutch:

His condition is getting worse and worse	– Zijn toestand wordt hoe langer hoe slechter
Food is becoming more and more expensive	– Levensmiddelen worden alsmaar duurder
The less you worry about her, the more likely she is to take your advice	– Hoe minder zorgen je je om haar maakt, hoe waarschijnlijker het is dat ze je raad opvolgt
This is more or less the same	– Dit is min of meer hetzelfde
He was more nervous than frightened	– Hij was eerder zenuwachtig dan bang
Paul is no more mad than his brother	– Paul is net zo min gek als zijn broer
She was not much worse/ none the worse for the accident	– Ze had niet veel last van het ongeluk
My rent is even higher than yours	– Mijn huur is nog hoger dan de jouwe

5.2.3.6   *The use of the superlative*

The superlative is chiefly used when a comparison is made between more than two persons or objects, or between more than two sets of persons or objects:

Of all my colleagues Angus is the most reliable	– Van al mijn collega's is Angus de betrouwbaarste

| This is the tallest block of flats in town | – Dit is het hoogste flatgebouw in de stad |

The superlative is also used in English in cases where there is no question of comparison, but where the superlative expresses a very high degree of a quality that a person or object possesses. This is called the 'absolute superlative'. Dutch uses intensifying adverbs like *zeer, heel, erg, hoogst, uiterst* + the absolute degree or *aller–* + superlative. Cf.:

He gave a most interesting paper	– Hij hield een zeer interessante lezing
That was most kind (not: *kindest) of you	– Dat was heel aardig van je
She was most charming	– Ze was allercharmantst

The absolute superlative can only be used with adjectives expressing an opinion or a feeling (such as *interesting* and *kind*), not with 'objective' adjectives (like *old* or *tall*):

| She is very old (not: *oldest) | – Ze is erg oud |

Note that there is a difference between the following sentences; the first implies comparison and the second does not:

| His essay is the most original | – Zijn opstel is het oorspronkelijkst |
| His essay is most original | – Zijn opstel is zeer oorspronkelijk |

On the use of the definite article before superlatives see 3.3.2.2.

The following examples illustrate some important constructions involving superlatives in English and Dutch:

They had the very best opportunities	– Ze kregen de allerbeste kansen
Jim was her youngest–ever pupil	– Jim was de jongste leerling die zij ooit had gehad
This was John at his best	– Dit was John op zijn best
That was by far/much the cheapest solution	– Dat was verreweg de goedkoopste oplossing
His house is the largest but two in our street	– Zijn huis is op twee na het grootste in onze straat

She is the second youngest heart transplant patient	– Zij is op één na de jongste patiënt met een ruilhart
He came up with the next best proposal	– Hij kwam met het op één na beste voorstel
There were 20 students at (the) most/at the very most	– Er waren hoogstens 20 studenten

5.2.3.7 Other structures of comparison

Equivalence can be expressed by means of the expression *as…as* or by means of the adverb *equally*:

| Fred is as intelligent as Walter | – Fred is even intelligent als Walter |
| Fred and Walter are equally intelligent | – Fred en Walter zijn even intelligent |

Lack of equivalence can be expressed by means of the expressions *not as…as*, *not so…as*, *not anywhere near as…as*, *nowhere near as…as*, *nothing near as…as*, *nothing like as…as* or *not nearly as…as*:

Fred is not as/not so intelligent as Walter	– Fred is niet zo intelligent als Walter
My car is not anywhere/ nowhere near as expensive as yours	– Mijn auto is lang niet zo duur als de jouwe
His latest novel is nothing near/nothing like as good as the critics claim	– Zijn laatste roman is lang niet zo goed als de critici beweren
Linguistics is not nearly as difficult as you think	– Taalkunde is lang niet zo moeilijk als je denkt

Less and *least*

The adverbs *less* and *least* express the idea 'smaller/smallest in degree, extent', etc., as in:

| Fred is less intelligent than Walter | – Fred is minder intelligent dan Walter |
| Fred is the least intelligent of my students | – Fred is de minst intelligente van mijn studenten |

Note the following constructions involving *less* and *least*:

I don't think any the less of them	– Mijn achting voor hen is er niet minder om
She is eating even less than usual	– Ze eet nog minder dan gewoonlijk
This does not make the situation any the less difficult	– Dit maakt de situatie er niet gemakkelijker op
I could not care less	– Het kan me niets schelen
The less he eats the thinner he gets	– Hoe minder hij eet des te magerder hij wordt
She married no less a person than a duke	– Ze is met niemand minder dan een hertog getrouwd
I haven't the least idea	– Ik heb er geen flauw idee van
He is not very bright, to say the least of it	– Hij is niet erg slim, om het zachtjes uit te drukken
There were 250 guests at (the) least	– Er waren minstens 250 gasten
I don't mind in the least	– Ik vind het helemaal niet erg
He is being paid (the) least	– Hij verdient het minste

Note the difference between *not less than/not fewer than* and *no less than/no fewer than*. The latter express surprise. Cf.:

When you go to America, you should take not less than 1,000 dollars	– Als je naar Amerika gaat, moet je minstens duizend dollar meenemen
They produce no fewer than 1,000 cars a week	– Ze produceren niet minder dan duizend auto's per week

5.3 Adverbs and adverb phrases

5.3.1 Adverbs

5.3.1.1 The morphology of adverbs

From a morphological point of view we can distinguish two kinds of adverbs in English: those that have a specific ending and those that do not. The majority of adverbs are derived from corresponding adjectives by means of the suffix *–ly*. Adjectives ending in *–ic* take the suffix *–ally*. On spelling rules see Appendix II. Examples:

kind	–	kindly	whole	–	wholly
extreme	–	extremely	enthusiastic	–	enthusiastically
true	–	truly	economic	–	economically

The adverb derived from the adjective *possible* is *possibly*. Its negative counterpart *impossibly* can be used as a modifier of an adjective, but not as a sentence adverb. In the latter function English has *not possibly*. Cf.:

He is possibly the most talented poet we have	– Het is mogelijk dat hij de meest begaafde dichter is die we hebben
We had to get up at an impossibly early hour	– We moesten op een onmogelijk vroeg uur opstaan
I could not possibly fall in love with a girl her age	– Ik zou onmogelijk verliefd kunnen worden op een meisje van haar leeftijd

Many English adverbs lack the ending *–ly*. Examples are words like *quite, perhaps, even* and *too*. English lacks an adverb derived from the adjective *difficult*:

He understood me with difficulty (not: *difficultly)	– Hij begreep me maar moeilijk

Note the adverbial use of the words *dead, loud, clear, high, low, cheap, fast, long, late, hard, direct* and *quick* in sentences like the following:

We were dead tired	– We waren dodelijk vermoeid
Speak loud and clear (also: loudly and clearly)	– Spreek hard en duidelijk
The plane flew very high/low	– Het vliegtuig vloog zeer hoog/ laag
I bought that record cheap (also: cheaply)	– Ik heb die plaat goedkoop gekocht
Don't drive too fast	– Rij niet te hard
He has long been dead	– Hij is al lang dood
She arrived too late	– Ze kwam te laat
Students work hard	– Studenten werken hard
We flew direct to Boston	– We vlogen rechtstreeks naar Boston
She wants to get rich quick	– Ze wil snel rijk worden

The following examples show that the adverbs *late, hard* and *direct* differ in meaning from the adverbs *lately, hardly* and *directly*:

I have not seen her lately	– Ik heb haar de laatste tijd niet gezien
They hardly go out	– Ze gaan nauwelijks uit
Answer me directly!	– Geef meteen antwoord!

Dutch adverbs lack a characteristic adverbial suffix and are morphologically indistinguishable from adjectives. Cf.:

| That film was awful | – Die film was verschrikkelijk |
| That film was awfully boring | – Die film was verschrikkelijk saai |

5.3.1.2   *The syntactic functions of adverbs*

The major syntactic function of adverbs in English and Dutch is that of modifier. An adverb can modify an adjective, another adverb, a verb, a prepositional phrase and a determiner. Examples:

She is particularly attractive	– Ze is bijzonder aantrekkelijk
You are driving too quickly	– Je rijdt te hard
She paints beautifully	– Ze schildert prachtig
She was standing right behind the policewoman	– Ze stond onmiddellijk achter de agente
There were about 50 students	– Er waren ongeveer 50 studenten

The adverbs *quite* and *rather* can also modify a noun phrase with an indefinite article. Note that they precede the article in English:

| Shirley is now quite a lady | – Shirley is nu een hele dame |
| It was rather a surprise | – Het was een hele verrassing |

If the noun phrase contains an adjective, *quite* and *rather* can either precede or follow the indefinite article in English:

| a quite remarkable novel/ quite a remarkable novel | – een heel opmerkelijke roman |
| a rather incoherent story/ rather an incoherent story | – een tamelijk onsamenhangend verhaal |

Note the adverbial use of *no* before adjectives in English. Dutch usually prefers a positive construction:

| I have told them in no uncertain terms | – Ik heb het ze in duidelijke bewoordingen verteld |
| This question is of no great importance | – Deze vraag is van weinig belang |

Dutch intensifying adverbs like *heel, erg, zeer*, etc., when modifying an adjective or another adverb, usually correspond to *very* or *quite* in English:

| very/quite satisfactory | – heel bevredigend |
| very/quite slowly | – erg langzaam |

Other equivalents, some of which are used in more or less fixed combinations, include *completely, extremely, greatly, perfectly, truly, utterly, wholly, altogether* and *all*, as in:

completely successful	– volledig geslaagd
extremely difficult	– uiterst moeilijk
greatly impressed	– zeer onder de indruk
perfectly happy	– volmaakt gelukkig
truly grateful	– echt dankbaar
utterly corrupt	– volslagen corrupt
wholly mad	– helemaal gek
altogether impossible	– volslagen onmogelijk
all wrong	– helemaal verkeerd

Dutch *veel* before comparatives corresponds to English *much*:

| much better | – veel beter |
| much more economically | – veel zuiniger |

When intensifying adverbs like *erg, zeer* and *veel* modify a verb, they correspond to *very much* or *much* in English. *Much* usually occurs in mid–position in the sentence.

I (very) much enjoyed our outing	– Ik heb erg van ons uitstapje genoten
She was very much admired by her students	– Ze werd zeer door haar studenten bewonderd
I don't like him very much	– Ik vind hem niet zo aardig
It doesn't much matter/ matter very much	– Het doet er niet zo veel toe

The predicative adjectives *afraid, alike, ashamed* and *aware* can be modified by *very* as well as by *very much*:

<table>
<tr><td>I am very (much) afraid that
something might go wrong</td><td>– Ik ben erg bang dat er iets misgaat</td></tr>
<tr><td>My brothers are very (much)
alike</td><td>– Mijn broers lijken erg veel op elkaar</td></tr>
</table>

–ed participles that may be regarded as having adjectival status are usually modified by *very*. Some are modified by *much*. Those that are purely verbal in character require *very much*. In some cases usage varies. Cf.:

<table>
<tr><td>We were very surprised/
satisfied/relieved/
frightened/worried/ pleased</td><td>– We waren erg verbaasd/tevreden/
opgelucht/bang/bezorgd/ blij</td></tr>
<tr><td>I am much obliged to you</td><td>– Ik ben je zeer dankbaar</td></tr>
<tr><td>She was very much taken aback
by the news</td><td>– Ze was door het nieuws erg van haar
stuk gebracht</td></tr>
<tr><td>He felt very (much) hurt at her
words</td><td>– Hij voelde zich erg gekwetst door
wat ze zei</td></tr>
</table>

Apart from modifying adjectives, adverbs, verbs, prepositional phrases and determiners, adverbs can also modify a sentence as a whole, as in:

<table>
<tr><td>They are definitely getting
married</td><td>– Het is nu zeker dat ze gaan trouwen</td></tr>
</table>

In the examples below the adverb may be said to provide the speaker's comment on the rest of the sentence:

<table>
<tr><td>Fortunately, there was no need
to fire anyone</td><td>– Gelukkig was het niet nodig om
iemand te ontslaan</td></tr>
<tr><td>He wisely abstained from
voting</td><td>– Hij onthield zich wijselijk van
stemmen</td></tr>
</table>

One–word adverbs are not always available as translation equivalents in Dutch:

<table>
<tr><td>Surprisingly, he failed the exam</td><td>– Tot mijn verbazing zakte hij voor
het examen</td></tr>
<tr><td>Frankly, I don't like him</td><td>– Om eerlijk te zijn, ik mag hem niet</td></tr>
</table>

Note the difference between:

| She was surprisingly honest | – Ze was verbazend eerlijk |
| She was honest, surprisingly | – Ze was eerlijk, wat me verbaasde |

5.3.2   The structure of the adverb phrase

The structure of the adverb phrase in English is basically the same as the structure of the adverb phrase in Dutch. The head is always realized by an adverb, optionally preceded by a premodifier and optionally followed by a postmodifier:

(Premodifier)   –   Head   –   (Postmodifier)

Examples:

| (She ignored our request) completely | – (Ze negeerde ons verzoek) volkomen |
| (This season Arsenal are playing) very well | – (Dit seizoen speelt Arsenal) erg goed |

As in the case of adjective phrases, the modifier in an adverb phrase may be discontinuous. Examples:

| (They must have treated him) so cruelly that he died | – Ze moeten hem zo wreed behandeld hebben dat hij gestorven is |
| (He speaks English) as fluently as his teacher | – Hij spreekt even vloeiend Engels als zijn leraar |

5.3.2.1   Premodificational structures

The head of an adverb phrase can be premodified by intensifying adverbs:

| (They behaved) quite naturally | – (Ze gedroegen zich) heel natuurlijk |
| (The plan worked) perfectly well | – (Het plan werkte) heel goed |

5.3.2.2   The adverb phrase head

The head of an adverb phrase is invariably an adverb. Note that many adverbs in English and Dutch can neither be premodified nor postmodified. Examples:

We can hardly ignore this view	– We kunnen deze opvatting nauwelijks negeren
Originally they came from Scotland	– Oorspronkelijk kwamen ze uit Schotland

5.3.2.3   Postmodificational structures

The adverb phrase head can be postmodified by the adverb *enough* (Dutch *genoeg*) and by a finite clause introduced by *than* (Dutch *dan*). Examples:

Oddly enough, nothing had happened	– Vreemd genoeg was er niets gebeurd
His wife works harder than you think	– Zijn vrouw werkt harder dan jij denkt

5.3.3   The comparison of adverbs

Many adverbs in English (such as *then, why* and *perhaps*) cannot take degrees of comparison on semantic grounds. Of those that can, the majority form the comparative and the superlative periphrastically, by means of *more* and *most*. Dutch adverbs are morphologically indistinguishable from their corresponding adjectives and form their degrees of comparison by means of the suffixes *–er* and *–st*. Cf.:

That decision was more easily justifiable	– Die beslissing was gemakkelijker te rechtvaardigen
Of all the girls she danced the most beautifully	– Van alle meisjes danste zij het mooist

A few English adverbs form their degrees of comparison by means of *–er* and *–est*. They include *fast, hard, late, soon* and *early*:

She speaks faster than you	– Ze spreekt sneller dan jij
Who works hardest?	– Wie werkt het hardst?

By the side of *clearer, louder* and *quicker* we find *more clearly, more loudly* and *more quickly*:

Can't you do it quicker/ more quickly?	– Kun je het niet vlugger doen?

Note also that the comparative *easier* is used adverbially in

That's easier said than done	– Dat is gemakkelijker gezegd dan gedaan

The so–called absolute superlative is also found with adverbs. Dutch uses intensifiers like *zeer, uiterst*, etc.:

The audience responded most enthusiastically	– Het publiek reageerde zeer enthousiast
He always does his work most meticulously	– Hij doet zijn werk altijd uiterst nauwkeurig

5.4 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

5.4.1 Prepositions

From a semantic point of view prepositions can be divided into several classes depending on the meanings they have. Many prepositions in English and Dutch have more than one meaning. For example the preposition *in* can have a local meaning (*in Amsterdam*), a temporal meaning (*in 1988*) or a non–dimensional meaning (*in fact/in feite*).

Prepositions cannot be subdivided on morphological or syntactic grounds. They are invariable in form, both in English and in Dutch. Syntactically, they always function as the first element in the structure of the prepositional phrase.

5.4.2 The structure of the prepositional phrase

The structure of the prepositional phrase consists of two elements: the preposition itself and the prepositional complement. The latter usually follows the preposition (see, however, 5.4.3).

In English as well as in Dutch the prepositional complement can be realized by a noun phrase and by a *WH*–clause:

Put these words in alphabetical order	– Zet deze woorden in alfabetische volgorde
We were impressed by what he said	– We waren onder de indruk van wat hij zei

In English the prepositional complement can also be realized by an *–ing* clause. The corresponding construction in Dutch is an infinitive clause, a nominalisation or a finite clause introduced by a subordinator. Examples:

He walked by without noticing us	– Hij liep voorbij zonder ons op te merken
In writing this dissertation I received a great deal of support from various people	– Bij het schrijven van dit proefschrift heb ik veel steun gekregen van verschillende mensen
After seeing the President, he left for the airport	– Toen hij de President had gesproken, vertrok hij naar het vliegveld

If the *–ing* clause has a subject of its own, the Dutch equivalent is usually a clause introduced by *dat*:

The headmaster insisted on the parents being present	– De directeur stond erop dat de ouders aanwezig waren
He did not approve of me taking her out	– Hij vond het niet goed dat ik met haar uitging

In English as well as in Dutch a preposition cannot be followed by a *that–* clause or a *to*–infinitive clause. Cf.:

*I reminded him of that he had promised to come	– *Ik herinnerde hem aan dat hij beloofd had te komen
*They aim at to become independent in 1990	– *Ze streven naar onafhankelijk te worden in 1990

These ungrammatical sentences can be made grammatical by omitting the preposition in English and by inserting *er* in Dutch:

I reminded him that he had promised to come	– Ik herinnerde hem eraan dat hij beloofd had te komen
They aim to become independent in 1990	– Ze streven ernaar onafhankelijk te worden in 1990

In both languages the preposition can often be retained by using a construction with *the fact that/het feit dat*:

He is not aware of the fact that he exerts so much influence	– Hij is zich niet bewust van het feit dat hij zoveel invloed uitoefent

5.4.3 *Prepositional usage in English and Dutch*

There are a number of important differences in prepositional usage between the two languages. First, Dutch has a number of words (such as *op, in, door* and *over*) that can be used as prepositions, but that also occur in postposition. In the latter case they are called 'achterzetsel' and usually occur in sentences containing a verb of movement. This construction does not occur in English. Cf.:

The child crawled up the stairs	– Het kind kroop de trap op
She walked into the bathroom	– Ze liep de badkamer in

A second construction (also impossible in English) involves the use in Dutch of a combination of preposition and 'achterzetsel'. The preposition opens the prepositional phrase, while the 'achterzetsel' follows the prepositional complement. Examples:

The ship passed under the bridge	– Het schip voer onder de brug door
The bullet went through the door	– De kogel ging door de deur heen

Thirdly, prepositions cannot be followed in Dutch by the words *het, deze, dit, die, dat, wat* and *welk(e)*. Instead Dutch uses compound pronominal adverbs with *er, hier, daar* and *waar* as their first element: *ervoor, hiermee, daaraan, waarop*, etc. The elements of these compounds are often separable. Examples:

How much did you have to pay for it?	– Hoeveel heb je ervoor moeten betalen?
I cannot agree to this	– Hiermee ga ik niet akkoord/Hier ga ik niet mee akkoord
We cannot attribute our success to that	– Daaraan kunnen we ons succes niet toeschrijven/Daar kunnen we ons succes niet aan toeschrijven
What does this refer to?	– Waar slaat dit op?

Another difference in prepositional usage concerns a phenomenon known as 'preposition stranding'. This label refers to the fact that a preposition can be left (or 'stranded') in a sentence or clause, the prepositional complement having been moved to initial position. In English preposition stranding is found in the following cases:

1. in relative clauses:

    Dr Jones, who I told you about,   – Dr. Jones, over wie ik je verteld
       has resigned   heb, heeft ontslag genomen

2. in *WH*–questions:

    Who are you going on holiday   – Met wie ga je op vakantie?
       with?

3. in *WH*–clauses:

    What I believe in is peace   – Waar ik in geloof is vrede

4. in infinitive clauses:

    This man is impossible to work   – Het is onmogelijk om met deze man
       with   te werken

5. in passive sentences:

    The arms race should be put a   – Aan de bewapeningswedloop moet
       stop to   een einde worden gemaakt

6. in sentences containing an emphasized constituent in initial position:

    Frank she had fallen in love   – Op Frank was ze verliefd geworden
       with

7. in exclamatory sentences:

    What a mess he is in!   – Wat zit hij in de knoei!

In all of the English examples above the preposition has been stranded. In formal style, however, prepositions are also found in initial position. Cf.:

Formal style: This is the only problem with which we have to deal
To whom were you talking?

Informal style: This is the only problem (which) we have to deal with
Who were you talking to?

Preposition stranding is more restricted in Dutch than it is in English. In Dutch it is found in sentences containing compound pronominal adverbs with *er, hier* and *daar* for their first element. Examples:

I am not responsible for it	– Ik ben er niet verantwoordelijk voor
This is not what I worry about	– Hier maak ik me geen zorgen over
That is what he is interested in	– Daar heeft hij belangstelling voor

Preposition stranding in Dutch is also found in questions and relative clauses introduced by *waar*. In questions the preposition can occur both in final and in medial position, but in relative clauses it occurs in medial position only. Examples:

What does this word refer to?	– Waar slaat dit woord op?
What do we have to pay attention to?	– Waar moeten we op letten?
This is the solution for which we are looking/ (which) we are looking for	– Dit is de oplossing waarnaar we zoeken/waar we naar zoeken/ *waar we zoeken naar

Dutch also allows preposition stranding in sentences containing the words *overal, ergens* and *nergens*:

My parents worry about everything	– Mijn ouders maken zich overal zorgen over
Are you angry about something?	– Ben je ergens boos over?
They are pleased with nothing	– Ze zijn nergens blij mee

Finally, we should note that many nouns denoting measure and some geographical names are followed by the preposition *of* in English. There is no corresponding preposition in Dutch. Examples:

a number of participants	– een aantal deelnemers
a great deal of money	– een hoop geld

a collection of stamps	– een verzameling postzegels
a glass of sherry	– een glas sherry
hundreds/thousands of holidaymakers	– honderden/duizenden vakantiegangers
the City of Manchester	– de stad Manchester
the village of Sutton	– het dorp Sutton

6: The Sentence

6.1 Introduction

English and Dutch sentences, as we have seen, can be classified in a number of different ways; for example, in terms of their syntactic complexity, as simple, complex and compound (2.5.4.2) or, in terms of their grammatical form, as declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory (2.5.4.3). Sentences can be positive or negative (2.5.4.4) and active or passive. In this chapter we deal with some important sentence types in the two languages under the following headings: interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences (6.2), negative sentences (6.3), passive sentences (6.4) and special sentence types such as emphatic, existential, extraposed, cleft and pseudo–cleft sentences (6.5). Sentences involving substitution and ellipsis and sentences containing adverbial non–finite clauses are dealt with separately (6.6 and 6.7 respectively). This is followed by a discussion of verb complementation (6.8), word order (6.9) and, finally, concord (6.10).

6.2 Interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences

6.2.1 Interrogative sentences

6.2.1.1 Yes–no questions

One difference between yes–no questions in English and Dutch is that Dutch yes–no questions allow not only subject–auxiliary inversion, but also subject–lexical verb inversion, e.g. *Hij betreurt het* may change into *Betreurt hij het?* English requires the auxiliary *do* in the case of lexical verbs, e.g. *He regrets it* becomes *Does he regret it?* The lexical verb *be* occurs without *do* in such questions, e.g. *She is a student* becomes *Is she a student?* In BrE the lexical verb *have* is also often used without *do*, e.g. *She has a new car* becomes *Has she a new car?*, although *Has she got a new car?* and *Does she have a new car?* are quite common (cf. 4.2.2.3).

   Another difference between English and Dutch yes–no questions is that, unlike Dutch, English normally uses non–assertive forms in such questions: *any*

and its compounds *anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere*, but also *ever, either* and *yet* (3.3.2.2). Examples:

Has anyone helped you?	– Heeft iemand je geholpen?
Did you go anywhere last summer?	– Zijn jullie afgelopen zomer ergens geweest?
Have you ever been there?	– Ben jij daar ooit geweest?
Haven't they told you anything either?	– Hebben ze jou ook niets verteld?

6.2.1.2   WH–questions

If the *WH*–phrase is the subject of the question there is no inversion in either language, e.g. *Who saw them?/Wie zag hen? WH*–questions in English (2.5.4.3) require the auxiliary *do* if the sentence contains no auxiliary and if the *WH*–phrase is not the subject, e.g. *Who did they see?* Like English, Dutch has subject–auxiliary inversion, e.g. *Who have they seen?/Wie hebben zij gezien?* However, unlike English, Dutch also requires the inversion of subject and lexical verb. e.g. *Wie zagen zij?*/not: **Who(m) saw they?* Examples:

Who(m) did they elect President?	– Wie hebben ze tot president gekozen?
Who(m) shall we give the prize to?/To whom shall we give the prize?	– Wie/Aan wie zullen we de prijs geven?
What do you mean?	– Wat bedoel je?
Which man gave you the money?	– Welke man heeft jou het geld gegeven?

As we have seen in 5.4.3, English freely allows 'preposition stranding' in *WH*–questions, whereas in Dutch this is restricted to pronominal forms with *waar*, e.g. *waarop, waarmee, waarover*, as in *Waar heb je over gesproken?*, which is a variant of *Waarover heb je gesproken?* In Dutch, stranding cannot occur with the interrogative pronouns *wie, welke* and *wat*, e.g. not: **Wat heb je over gesproken?*, although *Over wat heb je gesproken?* is possible. Examples:

Who did they go on holiday with?	– Met wie zijn ze op vakantie geweest?
What did you talk about?	– Waarover/Over wat heb je gesproken?

Who do they say he is going to marry the daughter of?	– Met wiens dochter zeggen ze dat hij gaat trouwen?
Which teacher did you talk your problems over with?	– Met welke leraar heb je je problemen besproken?

6.2.1.3   Tag–questions

We have seen that tag–questions (2.5.4.3) are used in English as requests for confirmation of a statement, e.g. *He can't speak Russian, can he?*, in which case *can he?* is the tag. The rule for the formation of this construction is briefly as follows: if the statement is negative, the tag is positive, and vice versa; both the auxiliary and the subject are repeated in the tag. In the example *John speaks Russian, doesn't he?*, the subject is repeated in pronominal form, and the lexical verb is repeated by the auxiliary *do*.

   Dutch has no tag–questions, but it has a variety of expressions that can be used for the same communicative purpose. For example: *niet waar, of niet, of wel, toch (niet)* and *hè*. Consider the following sentences:

Mary told you this, didn't she?	– Mary heeft je dit verteld, niet waar?
You haven't applied for that job, have you?	– Je hebt toch niet gesolliciteerd naar die baan?
They are coming on Monday, aren't they?	– Ze komen maandag, hè?
There is something wrong, isn't there?	– Er is iets aan de hand, of niet?

English also has a less common type of tag–question in which the statement and the tag may both be positive. The intonation of these tags is always rising. They can express a conclusion, surprise, suspicion or anger. For example:

You hate him, do you?	– Je hebt een hekel aan hem, hè?
So you think you're funny, do you?	– Dus jij denkt dat je leuk leuk bent?

The so–called *reply questions* in English (4.2.2.3) are formed in the same way as the tag–questions just mentioned. For example:

(Albert can speak five languages) Can he?	– (Albert spreekt vijf talen) O ja?
(John doesn't like pop music) Doesn't he?	– (John houdt niet van popmuziek) O nee?

6.2.2   *Imperative sentences*

Imperative sentences, or commands, generally contain a verb form in the imperative mood (cf. 4.6.2). In both English and Dutch the person addressed may be expressed (Eng. *you*/Du. *jij, jullie, U*).

Close the window, please	– Doe/Doet U het raam even dicht
Sit down, will you?	– Ga even zitten/Gaat U zitten
Don't speak so loud	– Praat niet zo hard
You come here	– Hier komen, jij

Note that English also has 3rd person imperatives, which do not occur in Dutch:

Somebody help me open this tin	– Kan iemand mij helpen dit blikje open te maken?

Dutch, on the other hand, can sometimes use an infinitive or a past participle in order to express a command. Examples:

Pay attention, children	– Opletten, kinderen
Watch out	– Opgepast

6.2.3   *Exclamatory sentences*

Exclamatory sentences in English are usually introduced by *how* or *what*, e.g. *How incredible this sounds!* and *What a bore he is!* These sentences express emotions such as surprise, indignation, excitement and disappointment. *How* is used with adjectives, adverbs and verbs, whereas *what* occurs with nouns. Dutch invariably uses *wat* in exclamations of this type. For example:

How rich they are!	– Wat zijn ze rijk!
How beautifully she sings!	– Wat zingt ze mooi!
How I hate you!	– Wat heb ik toch een hekel aan je!
What a beautiful car he's got!	– Wat een mooie auto heeft hij!
What nonsense this is!	– Wat een onzin is dit!

One important point to be noted here is that the English sentences have normal word order: the subject precedes the verb. This construction is not to be confused with *WH*–questions such as *How rich are they?* (6.2.1.2). In Dutch, there

is always inversion of subject and verb. Another important point is the use, in English, of the indefinite article after *what*. The rule is that only singular count nouns are preceded by *a* or *an*, e.g. *What a beautiful car*.... Plural count nouns and non–count nouns do not take an indefinite article, e.g. *What lovely flowers*... (Du. *Wat een mooie bloemen*...) and *What impudence*... (Du. *Wat een brutaliteit*...). Dutch always has *Wat een*....

Apart from exclamatory sentences with *what* and *how*, English has a variety of constructions with the same communicative function. They contain words like *so* and *such* (especially in women's speech), *if only* or the demonstrative pronouns *that* and *those*. Consider, for example:

I was so pleased to see you yesterday!	– Ik was zo blij je gisteren te zien!
Joan is such a good actress!	– Joan is zo'n goede actrice!
If only she knew what she wanted!	– Wist ze maar wat ze wou!
That's what I call real courage!	– Dat noem ik nog eens echte moed!
Those were the days!	– Dat waren nog eens tijden!

English and Dutch also have expressions like the following:

That this should have happened to him!	– Dat dat hem nu juist moest overkomen!
Was he angry!	– Boos dat ie was!
He is so looking forward to going to London!	– Of hij het leuk vindt om naar Londen te gaan!

6.3   Negative sentences

Positive sentences can be made negative by adding the particle *not* (or *–n't*) to the (first) auxiliary in the verb phrase (2.5.4.4 and 4.2.2.3). If there is no auxiliary in the positive sentence, auxiliary *do* must be supplied for negation, and the negative particle is attached to the forms *do, does* or *did*. For example, *He can speak Danish* can be changed into *He can't speak Danish*, but *He likes pop music* changes into *He doesn't like pop music*. It is not only declarative sentences, but also interrogative and imperative sentences that can be negated. Thus, *Does he like pop music?* can become *Doesn't he like pop music?*, and *Go home!* can be changed into *Don't go home!* As in the case of interrogative sentences (6.2.1), the lexical verb *be* occurs without *do* in the negative, e.g. *She isn't a student*. The same often applies to the lexical verb *have* in BrE, e.g. *She*

hasn't a new car, although *She hasn't got a new car* and *She doesn't have a new car* are quite common. Examples:

You shouldn't have told me	– Je had het mij niet moeten vertellen
They haven't yet found a good solution	– Ze hebben nog geen goede oplossing gevonden
She didn't hear the doorbell	– Ze hoorde de deurbel niet
Haven't you seen any of Spielberg's films?	– Heb je nog geen enkele film van Spielberg gezien?
Don't be silly!	– Doe niet zo dom!

There are two points to be noted here. One is that, like interrogative sentences, negative sentences normally contain non–assertive forms such as the *any*–words, *yet, ever*, etc. The other is that negative imperative sentences with the lexical verb *be* require auxiliary *do*.

Negative adjuncts such as *never, hardly, rarely, little, no sooner, not for a moment*, etc. may be placed at the beginning of a sentence for emphasis. In that case, there is obligatory inversion of the subject and the (first) auxiliary; if there is no auxiliary, auxiliary *do* must be inserted. Dutch sentences of this kind have inversion of subject and auxiliary or of subject and lexical verb. For example:

Never have I seen a more beautiful view than this	– Nooit heb ik zo'n prachtig uitzicht gezien
Only now do I understand what he meant	– Pas nu begrijp ik wat hij bedoelde
Rarely do they receive visitors nowadays	– Zelden ontvangen ze tegenwoordig gasten
No sooner had they settled their quarrel than they started arguing again	– Nauwelijks hadden ze hun ruzie bijgelegd of ze begonnen weer te bekvechten
Not for a moment did I think it was you	– Geen moment heb ik gedacht dat jij het was

6.4   Passive sentences

The grammatical term *voice* is used to refer to the contrast between sentences like:

(1) a.   Arsenal beat Liverpool 2–0 last season
     b.   Liverpool was beaten 2–0 by Arsenal last season

Sentence (1a) is in the *active* voice (Du. *bedrijvende vorm*), and sentence (1b) in the *passive* voice (Du. *lijdende vorm*). The two sentences have essentially the same meaning, but their semantic content is presented in syntactically different ways. In (1a), *Arsenal*, the 'agent' of the action referred to, is the grammatical subject of the sentence and comes first; *Liverpool*, the so–called 'patient' (or 'undergoer') of the action, is the grammatical object, and follows the subject and the verb. In (1b), the order of agent and patient is reversed, the agent being expressed by means of an optional agentive *by*–phrase (*by Arsenal*) and the patient functioning as grammatical subject (*Liverpool*).

6.4.1   The form of the passive verb phrase

In English the verb phrase is marked for passive by means of the auxiliary *be* followed by the *–ed* participle of a transitive lexical verb. A form of *be* + the *–ed* suffix are added to the active verb phrase, as follows:

> *writes: is written*
> *killed: was killed*
> *has examined: has been examined*
> *will write: will be written*

The passive auxiliary in Dutch, corresponding to English *be*, is *worden*. In the perfect tenses Dutch has the auxiliary *zijn*, which is, strictly speaking, an auxiliary of tense that goes with the past participle *geworden*. The latter is usually left out. Compare:

Active: De arts onderzoekt de patient
          The doctor examines/is examining the patient
`Passive: De patient wordt (door de arts) onderzocht
          The patient is examined/is being examined (by the doctor)
Active: De arts heeft de patient onderzocht
          The doctor has examined/has been examining the patient
Passive: De patient is (door de arts) onderzocht (geworden)
          The patient has been examined/?has been being examined (by the doctor)

All eight tenses distinguished in section 4.4 can occur in both the active and the passive voice, but verb phrases marked for both Perfect, Progressive and Passive are regarded as only marginally acceptable (e.g.:?*has been being built*, ?*will have been being written*). See also the section on the *get*–passive (6.4.2 be-

low). The following sentences illustrate the use of the (non–progressive) passive verb phrases in all eight tenses:

He is regarded as a genius (present)	– Hij wordt als een genie beschouwd
The barrels of oil were rolled onto the ship (past)	– De vaten olie werden het schip op gerold
Ten volumes of the new encyclopedia have already been published (present perfect)	– Er zijn al tien delen van de nieuwe encyclopedie uitgegeven
They knew that he had been accused of theft before (past perfect)	– Zij wisten dat hij al eerder van diefstal beschuldigd was
New measures will be announced tomorrow (present future)	– Er zullen morgen nieuwe maat- regelen aangekondigd worden
The money would be paid into my bank account without delay (past future)	– Het geld zou onmiddellijk op mijn bankrekening gestort worden
By midnight all the votes will have been counted (present perfect future)	– Tegen middernacht zullen alle stemmen geteld zijn
You would have been invited, but I could not reach you (past perfect future)	– Je zou zijn uitgenodigd, maar ik kon je niet bereiken

The active–passive relation between *Arsenal beat Liverpool...* and *Liverpool was beaten by Arsenal...* involves not only changes at the level of the phrase, but also at sentence level. The changes at sentence level will be dealt with in some detail later. Diagrammatically, the relation between the two sentences can be represented as follows:

	SUBJECT	ACTIVE VP	OBJECT
Active:	Arsenal	beat	Liverpool
Passive:	Liverpool	was beaten	by Arsenal
	SUBJECT	PASSIVE VP	*by*–phrase

The same diagram can be used to express the active–passive relation in Dutch.

Note, however, that in Dutch the *door*–phrase (the agentive phrase) is usually placed after the (first) auxiliary, or immediately after the subject in subordinate clauses.

John hit Mary: Mary was hit by John	– John sloeg Mary: Mary werd door John geslagen
John will help us: We shall be helped by John	– John zal ons helpen: We zullen door John geholpen worden
He said that he had seen the burglar: He said that the burglar had been seen by him	– Hij zei dat hij de inbreker gezien had: Hij zei dat de inbreker door hem gezien was

It is important to note that in some cases the Dutch construction *zijn* + past participle may be either a passive voice construction or a construction consisting of the copula *zijn* followed by a participial subject attribute. The passive construction usually denotes an action (of which the agent may be optionally expressed), and the subject attribute construction a state or a situation. Thus,

Hij wist dat het lijk in de tuin begraven was

may report either the action of burying (i.e. 'dat het lijk was begraven in de tuin') or the resultant state (i.e. 'dat het lijk in de tuin begraven lag'). The English translations corresponding to these two interpretations, are:

He knew that the body had been buried in the garden
He knew that the body was/lay buried in the garden

The following examples show that the interpretation of *be* + participle largely depends on the context and on the type of lexical verb involved (the first two sentences below are in the passive voice; the remaining three are instances of copula *be* + participial subject attribute):

The man said he had been hit by a bullet	– De man zei dat hij door een kogel geraakt was
The prisoner stated that he had been tortured	– De gevangene verklaarde dat hij gemarteld was
A large part of the book is devoted to a description of the scenery	– Een groot deel van het boek is gewijd aan een beschrijving van het landschap

| Are you interested in modern Dutch poetry? | – Ben je geïnteresseerd in moderne Nederlandse poëzie? |
| As a result of the heavy snowfall several villages have been isolated for a week | – Als gevolg van de zware sneeuwval zijn verschillende dorpen al een week geïsoleerd |

Apart from the active and passive finite verb forms mentioned above (*writes: is written; wrote: was written; has written: has been written*, etc.), English has the following active and passive non–finite verb forms:

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Infinitive	to write	to be written
Perfect Infinitive	to have written	to have been written
–ing participle	writing	being written
Perfect *–ing* participle	having written	having been written

Examples of non–finite passives with their Dutch translations:

All essays had to be handed in before the end of the week	– Alle essays moesten voor het einde van de week ingeleverd worden
These waltzes are believed to have been composed by Moritz Moszkowski	– Men gelooft dat deze walsen gecomponeerd zijn door Moritz Moszkowski
Just fancy being told that!	– Stel je toch voor dat je dat verteld wordt!
He was sacked for having been seen in the company of the boss's wife	– Hij werd ontslagen omdat men hem had gezien in gezelschap van de vrouw van de baas

6.4.2   The get–*passive*

The verb *get* is also occasionally used in English to form the passive, but it occurs less frequently than *be* and it is mainly restricted to colloquial language. For example:

The boy got punished for something he had not done
The thief got caught eventually
Jim got run over by a car
John got himself elected chairman

Compare:

> You will be paid on a monthly basis (formal, written style)
> You will get paid on a monthly basis (informal, spoken style)

However, the difference between the two passives is not only a matter of style. The *get*–passive also differs from the *be*–passive in that:

(1) It often refers to both the action and the resultant state after the event. *The boy got punished...* thus means 'The boy was punished...' (actional passive) or 'The boy was punished...' (statal construction),

(2) It sometimes implies that the subject of the sentence is to some extent responsible for what has happened, or that he/she may have intended it to happen,

(3) It sometimes suggests that what has happened to the subject is regarded as 'something good' or 'something bad', depending on the situation.

The *be*–passive is usually neutral in these respects. So, depending on the context or situation, the difference between *John got run over by a car* and *John was run over by a car* may be simply that the first sentence is more colloquial in style than the second, or that it more clearly implies that the accident was due to John's own inattentiveness, or that what happened to John was something bad. The following examples show that the *get*–passive tends to occur with verbs denoting a (sudden) change or a transition, and without an overt agentive *by*–phrase:

> She is getting invited to lots of parties these days
> My brother got injured playing football last weekend
> Mary got caught speeding by the police
> Dozens of people are getting killed on the roads every day
> Several demonstrators got hurt, and had to be taken to hospital
> Her books also got translated into Japanese

The *get*–passive cannot generally be used in cases which denote states or non–transitional events:

> *Professor Smith gets adored by all his female students
> *His name will always get remembered

In sentences like the following, *get* is not a marker of the passive, but a copula denoting the result of an action or process:

> We shall have to get changed very quickly now
> When did they get engaged/married/divorced?
> Let's get dressed

Get is often used in passive imperatives (to the exclusion of *be*):

> Get registered as soon as you can
> Get lost!
> Get stuffed!

Consider the following English sentences with *get* and their Dutch equivalents. Dutch often uses *krijgen* or *raken* here:

> He got paid 100 pounds for this splendid idea   – Hij kreeg 100 pond betaald voor dit schitterende idee
> His hand got squeezed in the door   – Zijn hand raakte tussen de deur beklemd
> We got offered a holiday on the Bahamas   – We kregen een vakantie op de Bahama–eilanden aangeboden

6.4.3   *The syntax of passive sentences*

As we have seen, passivization of an active sentence involves the reordering of two sentence elements, the object and the subject: the object NP of the active sentence becomes the subject NP of the corresponding passive sentence, and the subject NP of the active sentence becomes an optional *by*–phrase in the passive sentence (the preposition *by* is added to sentence (b)). See also the diagram of the active–passive relation given in 6.4.1.

Generally speaking, only sentences with transitive verbs can be passivized in English. In English both the direct object and the indirect object can usually be made the subject of a corresponding passive sentence, whereas in Dutch this is only possible with the direct object. We start with some English examples with two objects, giving their active and passive counterparts. In the passives we shall leave out the optional *by*–phrases (*by Bill, by them*):

> Bill gave John all the money/Bill gave all the money to John
>   (a) John was given all the money
>   (b) All the money was given to John

They promised him a rise in salary/They promised a rise in salary to him
    (a) He was promised a rise in salary
    (b) A rise in salary was promised (to) him

In most sentences with two objects the indirect object refers to human beings or personified objects, and the direct object to inanimate things. As a general rule, it is the human indirect object, rather than the inanimate direct object, that becomes the subject of the passive sentence. The (a) sentences above sound more natural than the (b) sentences. Here are some additional examples of indirect objects which have become the subject of a passive sentence:

Why wasn't he offered a cup of tea?	– Waarom werd hem geen kop thee aangeboden?/Waarom kreeg hij geen kop thee aangeboden?
She was paid a handsome sum of money last year	– Zij kreeg vorig jaar een flinke som geld uitbetaald/Haar werd vorig jaar een flinke som geld uitbetaald
We were shown all the latest models	– We kregen al de nieuwste modellen te zien/Ons werden al de nieuwste modellen getoond
She was left no choice	– Haar werd geen keuze gelaten/ Men liet haar geen keuze

The verbs used in this way include: *give, leave, lend, offer, pay, refuse, send, show, tell.*
   Note that the thing that is given, paid, sent (i.e. the inanimate direct object) can also become the subject, but in that case the indirect object normally takes the preposition *to* (although the version without *to* also occurs). For example:

Why wasn't a cup of tea offered to him?
A handsome sum of money was paid to her last year
Why wasn't it sent to me first?

With the verbs *explain* and *suggest* the preposition *to* is obligatory before the indirect object, both in the active and in the passive voice. This means that the indirect object cannot become the subject, so that in this case we find only one passive construction. For example:

Paul will explain it to you later	: It will be explained to you by Paul later (*not*: *You will be explained it later)

| When did they suggest this to you? | : When was this suggested to you? (*not*: *When were you suggested this?*) |

An important point to note is that constructions like the English indirect object–passives (e.g.: *John was given all the money*) are impossible in Dutch. As the Dutch translations above illustrate, Dutch has only one passive counterpart of *Waarom bood men hem geen kop thee aan?*, viz. *Waarom werd hem geen kop thee aangeboden?*, where *een kop thee* is the subject and *hem* the indirect object of the passive sentence. The construction *Waarom werd hij geen kop thee aangeboden?* is ungrammatical, but Dutch has the alternative: *Waarom kreeg hij geen kop thee aangeboden?* Consider also the following examples:

| I was given the money | – Mij werd het geld gegeven/Het geld werd mij gegeven |
| He was promised a rise in salary | – Hem werd een salarisverhoging beloofd/Er werd hem een salarisverhoging beloofd |

In discussing sentences with two objects in English, it is important to distinguish between sentences containing an indirect object, paraphrasable with the preposition *to*, and those containing a benefactive object, paraphrasable with *for*. Compare, for example:

| Who gave *Mary* this diamond ring? | : Who gave this diamond ring *to Mary*? |

and:

| Who bought *Mary* this diamond ring? | : Who bought this diamond ring *for Mary*? |

In general, it is only sentences of the first type that allow two passives. Sentences of the second type, containing a benefactive object, usually allow only the direct object–passive. For example:

John bought Mary this diamond ring/John bought this diamond ring for Mary
(a) This diamond ring was bought for Mary (by John)

but not normally:

(b) ?Mary was bought this diamond ring (by John)

Geoffrey poured Susan another cup of tea/Geoffrey poured another cup of tea for Susan
 (a) Another cup of tea was poured for Susan (by Geoffrey)

but not normally:

 (b) ?Susan was poured another cup of tea (by Geoffrey)

Benefactive passives with an indefinite direct object are often found to be more acceptable:

 Margaret was cooked a splendid meal by Uncle Jim
 Joyce was knitted some socks by her grandmother

Here are some examples of sentences containing a direct object and an object attribute before and after passivization:

They appointed John Nichols chairman of the committee: John Nichols was appointed chairman of the committee	– Ze benoemden John Nichols tot voorzitter van de commissie: John Nichols werd benoemd tot voorzitter van de commissie
They regarded these documents as top secret: These documents were regarded as top secret	– Ze beschouwden deze documenten als zeer geheim: Deze documenten werden als zeer geheim beschouwd

6.4.4   Object restrictions

It should be noted that in English and in Dutch there are certain restrictions on the types of object that can be made subject of a passive sentence. As a rule, definite and personal object–NP's can be converted more easily into the subject of a passive sentence than indefinite and non–personal object–NP's and object clauses. Sentences containing finite object clauses can be passivized as follows:

 We noticed that he had been there: That he had been there was noticed by us

but a construction which involves extraposition of the finite clause (see section 6.5) is to be preferred:

> It was noticed that he had been there

Additional examples:

> It was pointed out to him that this was his last chance
> It has been announced that Jim and Màry are going to get married

Dutch often has *er* as an anticipatory subject in these cases, corresponding to anticipatory *it* in English:

> Er wordt gezegd dat zij een   – It is said that she is a spy
>   spionne is
> Er is wel beweerd dat geld de   – It has been claimed that money is
>   wortel is van alle kwaad   the root of all evil

A non–finite clause can only be the subject of a passive sentence if it is extraposed. For example:

> They decided to go: It was   – Zij besloten te gaan: Er werd
>   decided to go (not: *To go   besloten te gaan
>   was decided)
> They considered it wiser for us   – Zij vonden het verstandiger als wij
>   to leave at once: It was   meteen vertrokken
>   considered wiser for us to
>   leave at once (rather than:
>   ?For us to leave at once was
>   considered wiser)

The subject of a non–finite clause can normally be made the subject of the passivized superordinate clause. For example:

> We heard him leaving/leave: He was heard leaving/to leave

Other examples:

> We saw him hitting the boy: He was seen hitting/to hit the boy
> They persuaded Mary to see a doctor: Mary was persuaded to see a doctor

The verbs that can be used in this way include *hear* and *see* (perception verbs) and *advise, allow, ask, command, find, order, permit, persuade, tell*, etc. (volitional verbs). We return to the syntax of non–finite constructions in section 6.8.

The Dutch equivalents of the examples in the passive just given usually contain active verbs, often with the impersonal pronoun *men* as subject. For example:

> Men hoorde hem vertrekken
> Men zag hem de jongen slaan

Note that English sentences like:

> We were advised/asked/ordered, etc. to leave the room

normally correspond to a different construction in Dutch, viz.:

> Ons werd geadviseerd/gevraagd/bevolen, etc. de kamer te verlaten

where *ons* is the indirect object of the passive, not the subject. However, one also finds in Dutch:

> We werden vriendelijk verzocht/gevraagd, etc. de kamer te verlaten

6.4.5   Passive existential sentences

Dutch has passive existential sentences with *er* (see also 6.5):

> Er zijn heel wat mensen ontslagen
> Er is gisteravond iemand in het pàrk vermoord

These usually have non–existential equivalents in English:

> A lot of people have been dismissed
> Someone was murdered in the park last night

Existential equivalents also occur, but these are found to be less acceptable:

> There have been a lot of people dismissed
> There was someone murdered in the park last night

Other examples of existential passives in Dutch are:

Several valuable paintings have been stolen	– Er zijn verschillende kostbare schilderijen gestolen
We have noticed that a mistake has been made	– We hebben gemerkt dat er een fout is gemaakt
Too much money is being spent on nuclear weapons	– Er wordt te veel geld besteed aan atoomwapens
A Dutchman has recently been appointed chairman of an important Common Market committee	– Er is kort geleden een Nederlander tot voorzitter van een belangrijke EG–commissie benoemd

Dutch also has passive existential constructions of the type *Er wordt weer gewerkt*, which differ from those just dealt with in that the verbs they contain are not transitive. English has a variety of constructions as equivalents of Dutch sentences of this type. For example:

Work has been resumed	– Er wordt weer gewerkt
There was a lot of laughing	– Er werd veel gelachen
Somebody is calling	– Er wordt geroepen
There was a knock at the door	– Er werd geklopt
Have there been any phonecalls?	– Is er nog opgebeld?

6.4.6   Multi–word verbs

Many prepositional, phrasal and phrasal–prepositional verbs also allow a passive construction (see section 6.4.3). For example:

We shall deal with your request first: Your request will be dealt with first (by us)

The man stared at the woman: The woman was stared at (by the man)

Sheila has switched off the light: The light has been switched off (by Sheila)

They rang up the doctor, but he was not in: The doctor was rung up (by them), but he was not in

We have put up too long with your rude behaviour: Your rude behaviour has been put up with too long (by us)

Prepositional verbs like *deal with* and *stare at*, phrasal verbs like *switch off* and *ring up*, and phrasal–prepositional verbs like *put up with* are followed by a direct object, which may regularly become the subject of the corresponding passive sentence.

Many idiomatic expressions of the pattern Verb + NP + PP (e.g.: *They took good care of the children*) allow two passive constructions: either the object–NP (*good care*) or the prepositional complement–NP (*the children*) can become the subject of a passive sentence. For example:

> They took good care of the children:
> > (a) Good care was taken of the children
> > (b) The children weren taken good care of
>
> We have taken careful note of your remarks:
> > (a) Careful note has been taken of your remarks
> > (b) Your remarks have been taken careful note of
>
> They paid no attention to my warnings:
> > (a) No attention was paid to my warnings
> > (b) My warnings were paid no attention to

Most of the prepositional idioms of this type allow both passives. The (a) version of the passive is usually regarded as the more formal of the two. However, there is a group of these idioms which show a strong tendency to allow version (b) to the exclusion of (a). A third group seems to allow no passive construction at all.

The following list includes some of the idioms which allow both passives:

give credence to	pay attention to
lose (all) trace of	pay tribute to
make allowance(s) for	put an end to
make an attempt on	put pressure on
make a fuss about	set one's heart on
make an impression on	set one's sights on
make mention of	take advantage of
make much of	take care of
make a note of	take exception to
make room for	take heed of
make use of	take note/notice of

Examples:

They gave little credence to the man's story:
- (a) Little credence was given to the man's story
- (b) The man's story was given little credence to

The press have made much of her aristocratic connections:
- (a) Much has been made (by the press) of her aristocratic connections
- (b) Her aristocratic connections have been made much of (by the press)

Everyone present took great exception to his remarks:
- (a) Great exception was taken to his remarks by everyone present
- (b) His remarks were taken great exception to by everyone present

The following idioms generally allow the (b) version of the passive rather than the (a) version:

get rid of	make hay of
give way to	make love to
keep pace with	set fire/light to
lose count of	take charge/control of
lose sight of	take a fancy to

Examples:

We have not sufficiently kept pace with new technological developments:
- (a) *Pace has not been kept sufficiently with new technological developments
- (b) New technological developments have not sufficiently been kept pace with

The policemen lost sight of the fugitive in the fog:
- (a) *Sight was lost of the fugitive in the fog
- (b) The fugitive was lost sight of in the fog

Finally, there is the category of idioms that usually allow no passive construction. Some of them are:

give an ear/eye to	put one's trust in
give rise to	take part in
make a dash/bolt for	

For example:

> The prisoner made a dash for the open window:
> > (a) *A dash was made for the open window by the prisoner
> > (b) *The open window was made a dash for by the prisoner

Consider some additional examples of (a) versions of the passive (the first two sentences below) and some (b) versions (the remaining sentences), with their equivalents in Dutch:

Proper advantage is not being taken of our splendid sports facilities	– Er wordt niet voldoende gebruik gemaakt van onze prachtige sportfaciliteiten
Wide use is being made of modern printing techniques	– Er wordt op brede schaal gebruik gemaakt van moderne druktechnieken
The new library is not yet being fully taken advantage of	– Van de nieuwe bibliotheek wordt nog niet voldoende gebruik gemaakt
This child is never taken any notice of	– Van dit kind wordt nooit enige notitie genomen
This quarrel had somehow to be put an end to	– Aan deze ruzie moest op een of andere manier een einde worden gemaakt
All wooden houses were set fire to by the enemy	– Alle houten huizen werden door de vijand in brand gestoken

6.4.7   Verb restrictions

In general, only transitive verbs can occur in the passive. However, there are some transitive verbs which (at least in certain senses) do not allow the passive. They include:

become	have	possess
contain	hold	resemble
fit	lack	suit

Thus, the following sentences cannot be passivized:

> This new dress becomes you

This leaflet contains all the information you need
The Joneses have a new house
The new theatre holds 2,000 people
George lacks the confidence needed for this job
Charlotte resembles her mother in many ways

Some of the verbs mentioned here can occur in the passive when used in a different sense:

The violent criminal was contained by three police officers
A good time was had by all
The staff meeting was held at John's request

There are also a few intransitive verbs followed by a place adjunct which can be passivized. For example:

This house has not been lived in for many years
My bed has been slept in by a stranger
My chair has been sat on

The place adjuncts in the corresponding active sentences are the prepositional phrases *in this house, in my bed* and *on my chair*.

6.4.8   The use of the passive voice

In general, the grammatical category *voice* can be seen as a means of adjusting sentence–structure in accordance with the principle that new information tends to be placed towards the end of the sentence, and old or given information at the beginning. Consider the following examples:

(a)   Arsenal had a very strong team last season. They beat Liverpool 2–0
(b)   Liverpool were no good last season. They were beaten by Arsenal 2–0

The sentence *They beat Liverpool 2–0* in (a) centres around Arsenal as its starting–point, and *They were beaten by Arsenal 2–0* centres around Liverpool; in both cases attention is focused on the new information that follows in the rest of the sentence.

   The main purpose of passive sentences is to talk about the patient of the action, rather than about the agent. This accounts for the tendency, in English

and in Dutch, to use the passive rather than the active form when the agent of the action is vague, unknown, irrelevant, or obvious from the context (in which case the agent is often not expressed). Examples:

The house has already been sold	– Het huis is al verkocht
All my money has been stolen!	– Al mijn geld is gestolen!
Four deserters will be court–martialled next Tuesday	– Vier deserteurs zullen a.s. dinsdag voor de krijgsraad gebracht worden

It is also worth noting that instructions, rules or warnings in the passive voice sound less personal, and therefore usually more polite, than their active counterparts (with *you*). Examples:

Bicycles must not be left in front of the building	– Het is verboden fietsen voor het gebouw te laten staan
Books with a red label are not to be used outside the library	– Boeken met een rood plakkertje mogen niet buiten de bibliotheek gebruikt worden
All works referred to should be listed in alphabetical order at the end of the article	– Alle geciteerde werken moeten in alfabetische volgorde worden vermeld aan het einde van het artikel
Trespassers will be prosecuted	– Overtreding wordt gestraft/ Verboden toegang

Because of its impersonal style the passive is also commonly used in official language, especially the language of information leaflets, scientific articles and news items. Examples:

You are hereby given leave to enter the United Kingdom for six months	– U wordt hierbij voor zes maanden tot het Verenigd Koninkrijk toegelaten
Experiments and observations have also been made on humans	– Er zijn ook op mensen experimenten en observaties uitgevoerd
The expansion of a gas when it is heated may be shown by the apparatus that is demonstrated in Figure 41	– De uitzetting van een gas bij verhitting kan worden aangetoond door middel van de in Figuur 41 afgebeelde apparatuur

In yesterday's explosion twenty people were killed, and several hundreds injured	– Bij de ontploffing van gisteren zijn twintig mensen gedood, en verscheidene honderden gewond

On the whole, the passive is much more common in English than in Dutch. It is sometimes used where Dutch has a reflexive construction with *zich laten*, or an active sentence with an impersonal subject like *men* or *ze* (very common in less formal language). Examples:

That is easily explained	– Dat laat zich gemakkelijk verklaren
Don't be discouraged by this failure	– Laat je door deze mislukking niet ontmoedigen
He swore that he wouldn't be insulted again	– Hij zwoer dat hij zich niet weer zou laten beledigen
What is understood by 'power politics'?	– Wat verstaat men onder 'machtspolitiek'?
I had been warned that the trip might be dangerous	– Men had mij gewaarschuwd/Ik was gewaarschuwd dat de reis wel eens gevaarlijk zou kunnen zijn
It is assumed that the Government will soon announce its resignation	– Men neemt aan dat de regering spoedig haar aftreden zal aankondigen

6.5 Some special sentence types

6.5.1 Introduction

In this section, we deal with three special types of sentences: existential sentences (6.5.2), cleft sentences (6.5.3) and extraposed sentences (6.5.4).

6.5.2 Existential sentences

Existential sentences are sentences beginning with *there is, there are, there seems, there may be*, etc., which are used to express the existence of a situation. For example: *There is some money in the box*. This construction is a device which enables the speaker to focus on new information (in this case, ('there being) *some money in the box*') by not placing that information immediately at the beginning of the sentence, but by postponing it. In most sentences, the non–existential version of the above example would sound awkward:

?Some money is in the box.

The unstressed word *there* in existential sentences serves as a grammatical subject (also called dummy subject). It is usually followed by a form of the verb *be* and an indefinite NP functioning as the notional subject (also called the real subject). The indefinite subject may be followed by an adverbial (e.g. *in the box*) in the above example or by a participle (e.g. *There is some money left*). Apart from the verb *be*, English occasionally uses intransitive verbs like *come, exist, live, seem, appear* and *stand* in existential sentences, e.g. *There comes a time when....*

The grammatical subject in Dutch existential sentences is *er*, and the verbs which occur most frequently are *zijn, bestaan, leven, staan, zitten* or *liggen*. Examples:

There is somebody at the door	– Er is/staat iemand aan de deur
There's a hole in your trousers	– Er zit een gat in je broek
There seems to be no solution to this problem	– Er schijnt geen oplossing te zijn/te bestaan voor dit probleem
Was there anyone in the room apart from you?	– Was er behalve jou nog iemand in de kamer?
There is no point in asking him again, is there?	– Het heeft toch geen zin het hem weer te vragen?
There are plenty of people losing their jobs these days	– Er zijn veel mensen die vandaag de dag hun baan kwijtraken
There were thousands of soldiers killed during the war	– Er zijn tijdens de oorlog duizenden soldaten gesneuveld
There appeared a new edition of his book last year	– Er is vorig jaar een nieuwe druk van zijn boek verschenen
There once lived an old man, who...	– Er leefde eens een oude man, die...

Dutch has existential sentences with intransitive verbs other than *zijn, bestaan, leven*, etc. and with passive verb phrases. The corresponding constructions in English are usually non–existential, although in the passive existential versions also occur. Examples:

Er is sindsdien veel gebeurd	– A lot has happened since then
Er is zojuist een Russisch vliegtuig geland	– A Russian plane has just landed
Er zijn veel fouten gemaakt	– Many errors have been made/There have been many errors made

Er wordt te veel geld uit- gegeven aan atoom- wapens	– Too much money is being spent on nuclear arms/There is too much money being spent on nuclear arms

Impersonal constructions like Dutch *Er werd veel gedronken op het feest* can be translated into English by sentences like *There was a lot of drinking at the party*.

Occasionally, English and Dutch allow a definite subject in existential sentences. For example:

'Is there any money left?' – 'Yes, there is the money in the box over there'	– 'Is er nog geld over?' – 'Ja, er is het geld in de doos daar'

6.5.3   Cleft sentences

Cleft sentences consist of two clauses, each with its own finite verb. They serve to give prominence to a particular sentence element for contrast. We have distinguished between *it*–type cleft sentences and *WH*–type cleft sentences (the latter are also called pseudo–cleft sentences). Compare, for example: *It was Longman who published that book* and *What I like is his sense of humour*. Clefting seems to occur less frequently in Dutch than in English, although both types of clefting are possible (Du. *gekloofde zinnen* and *pseudo–gekloofde zinnen*).

Cleft sentences with *It is/was...who/that...*, as we have seen, can be used to give special emphasis to any sentence constituent apart from the verb and the subject attribute (not, e.g.: **It was published that Longman that book* or **It is interesting that that book is*). The same restrictions apply to Dutch. The corresponding construction in Dutch has the form: *Het is/was, ...die/dat....* Consider the following *het*–cleft sentences in Dutch (b – d), based on the unmarked sentence (a):

a. Martinus Nijhoff publiceerde dit boek in 1987
b. Het was Martinus Nijhoff die dit boek in 1987 publiceerde
c. Het was dit boek dat Martinus Nijhoff in 1987 publiceerde
d. Het was in 1987 dat Martinus Nijhoff dit boek publiceerde

Additional examples of *it/het*–clefting:

It was your brother who/that gave me this bottle	– Het was je broer die mij deze fles gaf/*Je broer* gaf me deze fles
It is tomorrow that I have an appointment with my dentist	– Het is morgen dat ik een afspraak met mijn tandarts heb/*Morgen* heb ik een afspraak met mijn tandarts
It was to Mary that they decided to give the prize	– Het was aan Mary dat ze besloten de prijs te geven/Ze besloten de prijs *aan Mary* te geven
It was in London that we met	– Het was in Londen dat we elkaar ontmoetten/We ontmoetten elkaar *in Londen*
It is his assistants that do most of the work	– Het zijn zijn assistenten die het meeste werk doen
It is us/we who are to blame	– Wij zijn het die hiervoor verantwoordelijk zijn/*not*: *Het zijn wij die...

Dutch cleft sentences are usually acceptable, but they often sound less natural than their English counterparts. In spoken Dutch, an alternative pattern with contrastive stress on the item in focus is commonly preferred (in the above examples that constituent is italicized).

The last example but one illustrates an important difference between English and Dutch: English requires the singular form *it is, it was* where Dutch has *het zijn, het waren* for plural reference.

As the last example shows, Dutch requires the word order *Wij zijn het die...*, and not **Het zijn wij die...*, when the element in focus is a personal pronoun. This alternative word order is also possible in older styles of English (e.g. *Your brother it was who...*) and Dutch (e.g. *Je broer was het die...*).

In informal English, it is possible to have a zero pronoun instead of *who* or *that*, e.g. *It was your brother gave me this bottle*. This construction does not occur in Dutch.

Cleft sentences of the *WH*–type usually contain a *what*–clause as subject or as subject attribute, e.g. *What I like is his sense of humour* or *His sense of humour is what I like*. The pseudo–cleft construction is less restricted than the cleft construction in that it can be used to give prominence to the verb and its complement(s), e.g. *What he did was (to) write her a letter*. Examples:

What worries him most is his wife's health	– Wat hem het meest bezighoudt is de gezondheid van zijn vrouw

What she needs is a long holiday	– Wat ze nodig heeft is een lange vakantie

6.5.4 *Extraposed sentences*

Extraposition, as we have seen (2.5.6.5), involves the postponement of a nominal clause, usually a subject clause. The finite or non–finite subject clause is moved to the end of the sentence, and the normal subject position is filled by the anticipatory pronoun *it*. Extraposed sentences usually sound more natural than their non–extraposed versions. For example, *That she has changed her mind is a pity* can become *It is a pity that she has changed her mind*, and *To go there would be unwise* can be changed into *It would be unwise to go there*. Extraposition of clausal objects is illustrated by *I consider it my duty to help her*, where *to help her* is the object.

   Dutch also allows extraposition of clausal subjects or objects, but the use of the anticipatory pronoun *het* is not always required. For example: *Dat zij van gedachten is veranderd is jammer* can become *Het is jammer dat zij van gedachten is veranderd* or *Jammer is dat zij van gedachten is veranderd*. An extraposed sentence without anticipatory *it* would be impossible in English. In passive sentences, Dutch uses *er* instead of *het*, as an anticipatory subject, e.g. *Er wordt gezegd dat zij gaat hertrouwen*. Examples:

It surprised me that he didn't phone	– Het verbaasde me dat hij niet heeft opgebeld
It was quite enjoyable to talk to him	– Het was heel plezierig met hem te praten
It's no use asking him again	– Het heeft geen zin het hem weer te vragen
It doesn't interest me whether he comes or not	– Het interesseert mij niet of hij komt of niet
It will be a pity if she resigns	– Het zal jammer zijn als ze ontslag neemt
She found it nice to be with him	– Ze vond het fijn om bij hem te zijn

6.6   Substitution and ellipsis

6.6.1 *Introduction*

Substitution and ellipsis are syntactic devices which are used to avoid repetition

in compound and complex sentences, and also across sentences. Substitution involves the use of pro–forms for clauses, NP's, Adj.P's and VP's (with or without other sentence elements). The pro–forms in English include items such as *so, so do, do, it, he, she, that, this, one* and the *–self* pronouns. Ellipsis, on the other hand, involves the omission of sentence elements which are regarded as redundant in the context. Elements that can be ellipted are the subject, (part of) the predicator, a complement, or certain combinations of these.

6.6.2   Substitution

He, she, it and *they*

In 2.3.9, 3.2.3 and 3.4.1 we have seen that the personal pronouns *he* and *she* are generally used in English to refer to NP's denoting male and female persons, whereas *it* is commonly used to refer to inanimate things and situations. There are exceptions, however. For example, nouns denoting countries, cars and ships may be referred to by *she* instead of *it*, and nouns denoting animals or babies may be referred to by *it* instead of *he* or *she*, when their sex is unknown or regarded as irrelevant. The third person plural pronoun *they* can replace NP's denoting animate as well as inanimate referents.

What the use of *hij, zij* and *het* shows is that Dutch nouns have grammatical gender, whereas in English gender is chiefly based on the sex of the referent (nouns are masculine, feminine or neuter depending, in general, on whether the referent is male, female or inanimate). Dutch nouns may be *de*–words or *het*–words depending on whether they are preceded in the singular by the definite article *de* or *het*. *De*–words may be masculine or feminine; they are said to be masculine in Dutch when referred to by the pronoun *hij*, feminine when referred to by the pronoun *zij*. *Het*–words are grammatically neuter and they are referred to by the pronoun *het*. In other words, the distinction in Dutch is not primarily sex–based, as it is in English. On the use of demonstrative, relative and other pronouns in English and Dutch, see 3.4. Examples:

John plays tennis twice a week. He is hoping to be a champion one day	– John tennist tweemaal per week. Hij hoopt eens kampioen te worden
Mary pulled a long face. She had never eaten frogs' legs before	– Mary trok een lang gezicht. Ze had nog nooit kikkerbilletjes gegeten
'What do you think of their new house?' – 'It is a bit small'	– 'Wat vind je van hun nieuwe huis?' – 'Het is een beetje klein'

Your yacht looks very old. When was it/she built?	– Uw jacht ziet er zeer oud uit. Wanneer is het gebouwd?
Russia was asked to withdraw its/her troops from Afghanistan	– Rusland werd gevraagd zijn troepen uit Afghanistan terug te trekken
I have decided to sell my old sports car. It/She is becoming far too expensive to keep up	– Ik heb besloten mijn oude sportauto te verkopen. Hij wordt me veel te duur in het onderhoud
Little is known about the castle and its inhabitants	– Er is weinig bekend over het kasteel en zijn bewoners

Dutch learners of English are apt to make mistakes in cases where Dutch has the pronouns *hij, hem, zij* and *haar* to refer to inanimate *de*–words. In this case English always requires *it*. For example:

Our room was splendid. It (*not*: *She) faced south	– Onze kamer was prachtig. Ze (*not*: *Het) lag op het zuiden
I've had this bike for 10 years. I couldn't do without it (*not*: *him)	– Ik heb deze fiets al 10 jaar. Ik zou hem (*not*: *het) niet kunnen missen

The Dutch pronoun *het* is used in sentence–initial position to identify people. English has *it* (always followed by a singular verb form). For example:

I saw a familiar face in the crowd. It was James	– Ik zag een bekend gezicht in de menigte. Het was James
We heard something in the hall. It was the children (*not*: *It were…)	– We hoorden iets in de hal. Het waren de kinderen

Dutch also uses *het* or *die* in sentences that do not identify, but provide further information. In that case English has *he, she* or *they*:

'Is Maggie a friend of yours?' – 'No, she is a colleague of mine'	– 'Is Maggie een vriendin van je?' – 'Nee, het is een collega van me'
'Do you know Gillian Hopkins?' – 'Yes, I met her last week'	– 'Ken jij Gillian Hopkins?' – 'Ja, die heb ik verleden week ontmoet'

'Are the Johnsons from Australia?' – 'No, they are from England'	– 'Komen de Johnsons uit Australië?' – 'Nee, die komen uit Engeland'

The pronouns *it* and *het* can be used to refer to a preceding sentence:

John failed his exam. Of course, it was to be expected	– John is gezakt voor zijn examen. Natuurlijk was het te verwachten

So

So occurs with verbs such as *say, think, hope, suppose* and *be afraid*, and it refers to a preceding sentence. Dutch has *dat* sentence–initially or *van wel*. Examples:

'Is Rosy coming to the party?' – 'I hope so'/'So I understand'	– 'Komt Rosy naar het feest?' – 'Ik hoop van wel'/'Dat heb ik begrepen'
'Is he rich? – 'I think so'/'I don't think so'	– 'Is hij rijk?' – 'Ik denk van wel'/'Ik denk van niet'

Note that the negative counterpart of a construction like *I hope so* is *I hope not*. However, rather than *I think not* and *I expect not*, English uses *I don't think so* and *I don't expect so*.

Do, do so, do it/that

Do is used in English to replace a preceding predicate, in which case Dutch normally uses *ook*:

The Americans want peace, and I think the Russians do too	– De Amerikanen willen vrede, en ik denk de Russen ook
Some students thought of going to England for a year. Peter did, for example	– Een paar studenten dachten erover een jaar naar Engeland te gaan. Peter bijvoorbeeld ook
'I hope you like the present' – 'Yes, I do, thanks'	– 'Ik hoop dat je het cadeau leuk vindt' – 'Ja, bedankt'

As the last example shows, Dutch does not always have a form corresponding to the English *do*–construction.

Dutch *het* or *dat* also corresponds to English *do so* and its variants *do that* and *do it* in sentences like the following:

I asked him to drive me home, – Ik vroeg hem me naar huis te rijden,
   but he refused to do so/it   maar dat weigerde hij (te doen)
Jeremy resigned last week and – Jeremy heeft verleden week ontslag
   everyone wonders why he   genomen en iedereen vraagt zich
   did so/it/that   af waarom hij dat gedaan heeft

So...do, so...be, so...have and *so...* + modal auxiliary

English has the constructions *so...do, so...be, so...have* and *so...*+ modal auxiliary, which are used to confirm the preceding statement. The corresponding phrases in Dutch are *inderdaad, (dat) klopt, dat is waar*, etc. For example:

'He loves her' – 'So he does' – 'Hij houdt van haar' – 'Inderdaad'
'Colin is a professor' – 'So he is' – 'Colin is hoogleraar' – 'Dat klopt'
'Max should have been more – 'Max had verstandiger moeten zijn'
   sensible' – 'So he should'   – 'Dat is waar'/ 'Inderdaad'

So do, so be, so have and *so* + modal auxiliary

English also has the constructions *so do, so be, so have* and *so* + modal auxiliary. The Dutch equivalents for these are *ook, dat...ook, dat doen...ook*. For example:

'I admire her very much' – 'So – 'Ik bewonder haar heel erg' – 'Wij
   do we'   ook'
'We have been to Paris' – 'So – 'Wij zijn naar Parijs geweest' – 'Ik
   have I'   ook'
'Roger can play Mozart' – 'So – 'Roger kan Mozart spelen' – 'Dat
   can Frank'   kan Frank ook'

A striking feature of these English examples is that they have subject–auxiliary inversion. Inversion occurs when the subject of the *so*–sentence is not identical with the subject of the preceding sentence.

One, ones

The word *one* is often used as a pro–form, in which case it can replace indefinite NP's or noun phrase heads. *One* can only replace count nouns. *One* as a pro–form for an indefinite noun phrase in the singular corresponds to Dutch *er*

een (in negative sentences: *er geen*). In the plural English has *some* (not *ones*), the Dutch equivalent being *er*:

I have been looking for a new flat for over a year, and now I have found one	– Ik heb meer dan een jaar gezocht naar een nieuwe flat, en nu heb ik er een gevonden
This question is one of great importance	– Deze vraag is er een van groot belang
'Do you have any cigarettes?' – 'Yes, I've got some in my room'	– 'Heb jij sigaretten?' – 'Ja, ik heb er op mijn kamer'

One, preceded by *the*, as a pro–form for a countable noun phrase head corresponds to Dutch *die* (singular and plural), *dat* or zero (after adjectives). In this function *one* is preceded and/or followed by a modifying word, phrase or clause. The plural is *ones*. Examples:

Which man do you mean? The one in the striped suit?	– Welke man bedoel je? Die met het gestreepte pak?
Your essays are much better now than the ones you wrote last year	– Je werkstukken zijn nu veel beter dan die je vorig jaar geschreven hebt
'Is this your house?' – 'No, mine is the one with the thatched roof'	– 'Is dit jouw huis?' – 'Nee, het mijne is dat met het rieten dak'
Jim collects stamps. He's got very rare ones	– Jim verzamelt postzegels. Hij heeft zeer zeldzame

Non–count nouns cannot be replaced by *the one*. The appropriate pro–form is *that*. Dutch has *die* or *dat*:

He writes about medieval literature, but also about that of the 17th century	– Hij schrijft over middeleeuwse letterkunde, maar ook over die van de 17e eeuw
I prefer Dutch meat to that from New Zealand	– Ik heb liever Nederlands vlees dan dat uit Nieuw–Zeeland

The use of *one* is optional after a number of pronouns and quantifiers such as *this*, *that*, *which*, *any*, *each*, *another*, *next*, *last*, *the same* and after superlatives. *One* is obligatory after *every* and *the only*. Examples:

This pen is better than that (one)	– Deze pen is beter dan die
There are two good films on. Which (one) would you like to see?	– Er zijn twee goeie films. Welke zou je graag willen zien?
For each (one) of the victims she had words of comfort	– Voor ieder van de slachtoffers had ze troostende woorden
I like your cigarettes. Can I have another (one)?	– Ik vind je sigaretten lekker. Mag ik er nog een?
I think Niki Lauda's car is the fastest (one)	– Ik denk dat Niki Lauda's auto het snelst is
She had eight children and she misses every one of them	– Ze had acht kinderen en ze mist ze allemaal
Of all my colleagues Wendy is the only one who speaks Arabic	– Van al mijn collega's is Wendy de enige die Arabisch spreekt

Plural *ones* is optional after *which, any, the same* and after superlatives. It is rarely used after *these* and *those*, and it does not occur at all after *both*. It is obligatory after *the only*. Examples:

Which (ones) of these novels have you read?	– Welke van deze romans heb je gelezen?
He never buys cheap cars. He always wants the best (ones)	– Hij koopt nooit goedkope auto's. Hij wil altijd de beste
What do you think of these (ones)?	– Wat vind je van deze?
They are the only ones that can help us	– Zij zijn de enigen die ons kunnen helpen

After numerals, *ones* is obligatory if there is an adjective. For example:

I have thrown out some of my old records and bought ten new ones	– Ik heb een paar van mijn oude platen weggedaan en tien nieuwe gekocht

6.6.3   Ellipsis

Under certain circumstances it is possible, for reasons of economy, to leave out part of a sentence. Ellipsis of a sentence element can only occur when it con-

tains information that has already been given in the context. Ellipsis in English involves the omission of elements such as subject, (part of the) predicator or complement, but also of combinations like the subject and the predicator or the predicator and a complement. In the examples the ellipted part is placed in brackets:

The miners are discontented and (the miners) want to go on strike	– De mijnwerkers zijn ontevreden en (de mijnwerkers) willen gaan staken
Peter is leaving tonight and Joan (is leaving) tomorrow	– Peter vertrekt vanavond en Joan (vertrekt) morgen
Holland imports (tea) and Sri Lanka exports tea	– Holland importeert (thee) en Sri Lanka exporteert thee

Ellipsis is more limited in Dutch than in English. It is impossible, for example, in Dutch to leave out part of the predicator. Compare:

They claimed they had been working, but they had not (been working)	– Ze beweerden dat ze hadden gewerkt, maar dat hadden ze niet/...maar ze hadden niet gewerkt/*not*:*...maar ze hadden niet
He has not been punished, but he should (have (been (punished)))	– Hij is niet gestraft, maar hij had dat wel moeten worden/ ...maar hij had moeten worden gestraft/*not*: *...maar hij had moeten worden
'Have you spoken to Bob?' – 'Yes, I have (spoken to Bob)'	– 'Heb je met Bob gesproken?' – 'Ja, zeker'/*not*: *'Ja, ik heb'

6.7   Sentences with adverbial non–finite clauses

6.7.1   Introduction

In this section we deal with the most important differences between English and Dutch as far as their use of adverbial non–finite clauses is concerned. Other grammatical functions of these clause types are discussed in chapters 3 and 5, and in section 6.8.

6.7.2 Adverbial to–*infinitive clauses*

Infinitives and participles can be used in the two languages to express adverbial meanings such as condition, cause, reason, purpose, time and circumstances.

The infinitive with *to, in order to* or *so as to* (in Dutch with *om te* or *teneinde te*) is often used to express purpose. The infinitive of purpose is illustrated in the following sentences:

We stopped for a few minutes to rest	– We stopten een paar minuten om te rusten
My brother is saving money (in order) to buy a second–hand car	– Mijn broer is geld aan het sparen om een tweedehands auto te kopen
We got up early so as to catch the first train to Oxford	– We stonden vroeg op om de eerste trein naar Oxford te halen

The infinitive of purpose construction may have sentence–initial position:

To make the picnic a success we really need some more white wine	– Om de picknick te laten slagen hebben we echt nog wat witte wijn nodig

The *to*–infinitives in the examples below represent the speaker's comments on the rest of the sentence (see 5.3.1.2).

To tell you the truth, I don't like the idea	– Om je de waarheid te vertellen, het idee staat mij niet aan
To cut a long story short, he never paid me back the money I had lent him	– Om kort te gaan, hij heeft mij nooit het geld terugbetaald dat ik hem had geleend
To put it mildly, his daughter has no talent for classical music	– Om het zacht uit te drukken, zijn dochter heeft geen talent voor klassieke muziek

6.7.3 Adverbial participle clauses

The *–ing* participle in English is used adverbially with or without a subject of its own. Dutch sometimes allows constructions of this kind, but usually prefers ad-verbial finite clauses to adverbial non–finite ones. The same applies to *–ed* par-ticiple clauses in English: they occur with or without a subject of their own. Dutch prefers finite clause constructions. Examples:

Entering the house, I thought I smelt gas	– Toen ik het huis binnenkwam/ ?Het huis binnenkomende, dacht ik dat ik gas rook
Putting his newspaper down, Dick went to answer the door	– Dick legde zijn krant neer en ging de deur opendoen/Nadat Dick…, ging hij…
While waiting for the next train, Jill finished her novel	– Terwijl ze op de volgende trein zat te wachten, las Jill haar roman uit
Generally speaking, girls are more intelligent than boys	– Over het algemeen zijn meisjes intelligenter dan jongens

The English examples given here all contain an adverbial *–ing* participle clause without its own subject. With the exception of the last example, the implicit subject of *entering, putting, waiting* is the same as that of the main clause, i.e. *I, Dick, Jill*; in the last example it is not *the girls* who 'speak generally', but some impersonal subject *one*. The last example but one illustrates the use of a subordinator (*while*) in an *–ing* clause.

Here are some examples of *–ing* clauses with their own subjects:

All the guests having left, we tidied up the room and washed the dishes	– Nadat alle gasten vertrokken waren, ruimden we de kamer op en deden de afwas
No other business arising, the meeting was closed	– Niets meer aan de orde zijnde/ aangezien er geen andere punten meer aan de orde waren, werd de vergadering gesloten
The bride walked down the steps, her veil blowing in the wind	– De bruid liep de trap af, haar sluier wapperend in de wind
With Peter playing on our side, we are bound to win	– Met Peter aan onze kant, winnen wij vast

The *–ed* participle clause can also be used adverbially, as in:

Used properly, this cassette recorder should last for years	– Mits goed gebruikt, moet deze cassetterecorder jaren meegaan
Once injured, Bill was no longer allowed to play for the first team	– Eenmaal geblesseerd, mocht Bill niet meer in het eerste elftal uitkomen
His studies finished, he decided to leave for the United States	– Nadat hij zijn studie had voltooid, besloot hij naar de Verenigde Staten te vertrekken

> With his hands tied behind his   – Met zijn handen op zijn rug
>   back, Houdini freed himself   gebonden, bevrijdde Houdini zich
>   from the steel cage   uit de stalen kooi

6.8   Verb complementation

6.8.1   Introduction

The label 'verb complementation' is used with reference to the obligatory constituents (*complements*) which follow the lexical verb in a sentence. Intransitive verbs (such as *disappear* and *laugh*) do not require complementation. Verbs that do can be divided into four classes, depending on the kind and number of complements they require: *copulas, monotransitive verbs, ditransitive verbs* and *complex transitive verbs*. Hence we distinguish four types of verb complementation:

a. Copular complementation

A copula may be followed by a NP, an Adj.P or a clause (finite or non–finite) in the function of subject attribute. Examples:

> Alice became a dentist   – Alice werd tandarts
> His book is very readable   – Zijn boek is zeer leesbaar
> My chief task is looking after   – Mijn voornaamste taak is voor de
>   the children   kinderen zorgen

b. Monotransitive complementation

A monotransitive verb is followed by a NP or a clause (finite or non–finite) in the function of direct object. Examples:

> Columbus discovered America   – Columbus heeft Amerika ontdekt
> She believes that this   – Zij gelooft dat deze hypothese
>   hypothesis is false   onjuist is
> I detest getting up early   – Ik heb een hekel aan vroeg opstaan

c. Ditransitive complementation

A ditransitive verb is followed by two complements (NP + NP or NP + clause), the first of which functions as indirect (or benefactive) object, the second as direct object. Examples:

| He has promised the children an outing | – Hij heeft de kinderen een uitstapje beloofd |
| The man showed the police where he had hidden the corpse | – De man toonde de politie waar hij het lijk verborgen had |

d. Complex transitive complementation

A complex transitive verb is followed by two complements (NP + NP, NP + Adj.P or NP + clause). The first complement functions as direct object, the second as object attribute. Examples:

| She called Jim a creep | – Ze noemde Jim een engerd |
| You should have painted the kitchen white | – Je had de keuken wit moeten verven |

These four complementation types are dealt with in 6.8.2 – 6.8.5. What follows is not a complete survey of the verb complementation patterns in English and Dutch. For reasons of space we will chiefly discuss those cases that are interesting from a contrastive point of view.

6.8.2   Copular complementation

We speak of copular complementation when the verb is a copula, followed by a complement that functions as subject attribute. Copulas constitute a closed class in English as well as in Dutch. English has more copulas than Dutch, however. The following lists contain only the most frequent ones:

	English			Dutch	
appear	go	remain	blijken	lijken	worden
be	grow	seem	blijven	schijnen	zijn
become	keep	stay			
fall	make	turn			
get	prove	turn out			

The examples below show that most copulas can be followed by both an adjective phrase and a noun phrase. Others can co–occur with an adjective phrase only. *Make* is invariably followed by a NP.

Appear:

| He appears optimistic | – Hij lijkt optimistisch |
| That appears an exception | – Dat lijkt een uitzondering |

Be:

| Mary is very intelligent | – Mary is heel intelligent |
| Oscar was a teacher | – Oscar was leraar |

Become:

| The referee became nervous | – De scheidsrechter werd zenuwachtig |
| Who became chairman? | – Wie werd voorzitter? |

Fall:

| The baby fell asleep | – De baby viel in slaap |

Get:

| She got pregnant | – Ze raakte zwanger |

Go:

| His father has gone blind | – Zijn vader is blind geworden |

Grow:

| Jim has grown old | – Jim is oud geworden |

Keep:

| Keep cool! | – Houd je rustig! |

Make:

| Charles will make a good father | – Charles zal een goede vader zijn |

Prove:

His efforts proved useless	– Zijn inspanningen bleken nutteloos
Her brother proved the culprit	– Haar broer bleek de dader

Remain:

Everyone remained calm	– Iedereen bleef kalm
He will remain a bachelor	– Hij zal vrijgezel blijven

Seem:

That answer seems easy	– Dat antwoord schijnt gemakkelijk
Joyce seems a nice girl	– Joyce lijkt een aardig meisje

Turn:

The milk has turned sour	– De melk is zuur geworden
He has turned teetotaller	– Hij is geheelonthouder geworden

Turn out:

The results turned out satisfactory	– De resultaten bleken bevredigend
The party turned out a success	– Het feest bleek een succes

Note that *be* is often optional after the copulas *appear, prove, seem* and *turn out*. Cf.:

The beach appeared (to be) deserted	– Het strand bleek verlaten (te zijn)

Apart from phrases, copulas can also be complemented by clauses. Clausal complementation in English is chiefly found after the copulas *be, become* and *remain*. The clause may be finite or non–finite.

Finite clauses are introduced by *that*, by a *WH*–word or by *as*:

His mistake was that he fell in love	– Zijn fout was dat hij verliefd werd
This is what I was looking for	– Dit is waar ik naar zocht
Our street will remain as it was	– Onze straat blijft zoals ze was

Non–finite clauses are chiefly found after the copula *be*. There are two types: the infinitive clause and the *–ing* participle clause. The infinitive clause in English is always introduced by *to*, except when the copula is preceded by a form of the verb *do*, in which case *to* is optional. In Dutch we find both the *te*–infinitive and the bare infinitive in this function. Cf.:

To see is to believe	– Zien is geloven
My main worry is to get there in time	– Mijn voornaamste zorg is daar op tijd aan te komen
All she did was (to) write a letter	– Alles wat ze deed was een brief schrijven

If the infinitive clause has a subject of its own, it must be introduced by *for*. It can also be introduced by *WH*–words in functions other than the subject. In these cases Dutch has a finite clause. Cf.:

The best solution is for them to stay at home	– De beste oplossing is dat ze thuis blijven
My problem is who else to invite	– Mijn probleem is wie ik nog meer zal uitnodigen

Note that, if the meaning of the sentence is passive, the copula is followed by a passive infinitive in English, where Dutch has an active infinitive. Cf.:

That was to be expected	– Dat was te verwachten
She is to be pitied	– Ze is te beklagen
That remains to be seen	– Dat staat nog te bezien

Note, however, the use of the active infinitive in English in:

The police are to blame for the accident	– De politie heeft schuld aan het ongeluk
Our house is to let	– Ons huis is te huur
This is not to say that I believe you	– Dat wil niet zeggen dat ik je geloof

The *–ing* participle clause corresponds to a bare infinitive clause in Dutch:

That is putting the cart before the horse	– Dat is het paard achter de wagen spannen
Her favourite sport is swimming	– Haar lievelingssport is zwemmen

Cf. however:

> That is saying a good deal   – Dat is veel gezegd

If the *–ing* participle clause has a subject of its own, the subject is expressed by the common case of a noun or the objective case of a personal pronoun or (in more formal style) by a genitive or a possessive pronoun. The corresponding construction in Dutch is a finite clause. Cf.:

> What surprised me was   – Wat me verbaasde was dat Jan/hij
>   John/him/John's/his being so   zo koppig was
>   obstinate

6.8.3   Monotransitive complementation

We speak of monotransitive complementation when the verb is obligatorily followed by a complement that functions as direct object. We will only deal with those cases where the complement is realized by:
1. a finite clause
2. a non–finite clause

6.8.3.1   The complement is a finite clause

A large number of verbs can be followed by a finite clause in English. They include the following:

> admit   discover   know   say
> believe   hope   regret   think

The finite clause may be introduced by the conjunction *that* or (after some verbs) by a *WH*–word. Note that the conjunction can be omitted in English, but not in Dutch. Examples:

> Everybody hopes (that) he will   – Iedereen hoopt dat hij ontslag zal
>   resign   nemen
> She knows where her parents   – Ze weet waar haar ouders zijn
>   are

Clauses introduced by *whether* or *if* correspond to *of*–clauses in Dutch. Note that after prepositions only *whether* is possible in English:

Do you know if/whether she has any experience?	– Weet je of ze ervaring heeft?
It depends on whether he is qualified	– Het hangt ervan af of hij bevoegd is

Prepositional verbs drop the preposition before a *that*–clause in English. In some cases the verb is followed by a preposition + anticipatory *it* + *that*–clause. In the corresponding Dutch sentence the subclause is preceded by a compound pronominal adverb containing *er* for its first element.
Examples:

He insisted that we should come, too	– Hij stond erop dat wij ook kwamen
I will see (to it) that you get a rise	– Ik zorg ervoor dat je salaris–verhoging krijgt
You may depend on it that I will get in touch	– Je kunt erop rekenen dat ik contact opneem

Before a *WH*–clause the preposition is often optional in English:

They cannot agree (about) who should be invited	– Ze kunnen het niet erover eens worden wie moet worden uitgenodigd
It depends (on) how you approach her	– Het hangt ervan af hoe je haar benadert

6.8.3.2   *The complement is a non–finite clause*

We can distinguish four types of complementation. The non–finite clause is:

a. a *to*–infinitive clause (subjectless or with a subject);
b. a bare infinitive clause;
c. an *–ing* participle clause (subjectless or with a subject);
d. an *–ed* participle clause.

Before dealing with these four complementation types, we should point out that clausal complementation is a very controversial subject in English grammar. This is particularly true of those cases where a NP precedes the non–finite verb of the complement clause, as in

This success encouraged *him to continue his research* (= type a)
We saw *the police enter the building* (= type b)
I don't mind *him saying that* (= type c)
You have had *your hair cut* (= type d)

In this section we are interested in the differences and similarities between non–finite clause complementation patterns in English and Dutch, rather than in the question how these complement clauses should be analysed. In order not to complicate matters, we treat all four types as instances of monotransitive complementation. In other words, in all four types the function of the non–finite clause will be taken to be that of direct object.

a. The non–finite clause is a *to*–infinitive clause

This type of clause is either subjectless or has a subject of its own.
   The class of verbs that can be followed by a subjectless *to*–infinitive clause can be divided into two subclasses: those that can occur with a *to*–infinitive clause as well as with an *–ing* participle clause (these are dealt with under c, class 2) and those that can only be followed by a *to*–infinitive clause. The latter subclass includes:

decline	endeavour	manage	pretend	swear
demand	learn	offer	refuse	threaten

As appears from the examples, the 'understood' subject of the *to*–infinitive clause is identical with the subject of the preceding verb:

She learned to speak Greek fluently	– Ze leerde vloeiend Grieks spreken
The terrorists threatened to blow up the plane	– De terroristen dreigden het vliegtuig op te blazen

A subclass of the verbs that can be followed by a subjectless *to*–infinitive clause can take a *WH*–infinitive clause as complement. The corresponding construction in Dutch is a finite clause. Examples:

I have discovered who to trust	– Ik heb ontdekt wie ik kan vertrouwen
Boys don't learn how to cope with emotions	– Jongens leren niet hoe ze met emoties moeten omgaan

The class of verbs that can be followed by a *to*–infinitive clause with a subject of its own includes the verbs listed under 1 and 2 below. Class 1 verbs also allow a subjectless *to*–infinitive clause, class 2 verbs are always followed by a clause with an overt subject. Class 2 can be subdivided into two subclasses. Whereas class 2a verbs do not restrict the choice of the following infinitive, class 2b verbs are usually followed by the infinitive *be*. Moreover, class 2b verbs can be followed by a *that*–clause.

class 1		class 2a		class 2b	
expect	mean	allow	lead	assume	know
hate	prefer	cause	oblige	believe	presume
intend	want	encourage	order	consider	suppose
like	wish	force	permit	find	understand
love		get	require	imagine	

Class 1: *to*–infinitive clause (subjectless or with a subject)

Note that, if the infinitive clause in English has a subject of its own, Dutch has a finite clause. Examples:

I expect to be back tomorrow/ I expect you to be back tomorrow	– Ik verwacht morgen terug te zijn/ Ik verwacht dat je morgen terug bent
She wants to go by train/ She wants me to go by train	– Ze wil de trein nemen/Ze wil dat ik de trein neem

Class 1 includes a number of prepositional verbs with *for*, such as *long for*, *plan for* and *wait for*, which retain the preposition before a complement clause with a subject of its own, but drop it before a subjectless clause. Cf.:

She was longing for her friend to come back	– Ze verlangde ernaar dat haar vriend zou terugkomen
She was longing to see her friend again	– Ze verlangde ernaar haar vriend terug te zien

Class 2a: *to*–infinitive clause with a subject

Examples:

What caused you to change your mind?	– Wat deed je van gedachten veranderen?

The police forced him to make a confession	– De politie dwong hem een bekentenis af te leggen

If the meaning of the complement clause is passive, English requires a passive infinitive, where Dutch allows an active infinitive. Cf.:

She allowed herself to be persuaded	– Ze liet zich overhalen
The junta ordered the prisoners to be shot	– De junta liet de gevangenen doodschieten

Class 2b: *to*–infinitive clause with a subject; infinitive is usually *be*

These verbs also allow a *that*–clause in English. The corresponding verbs in Dutch do not allow a non–finite clause. Examples:

The psychiatrist believes her to be insane/that she is insane	– De psychiater gelooft dat ze krankzinnig is
I know this method to be reliable/that this method is reliable	– Ik weet dat deze methode betrouwbaar is

b. The non–finite clause is a bare infinitive clause

This construction, in which the complement clause always has a subject of its own, occurs after a small number of verbs denoting physical perception:

feel	notice	see
hear	observe	watch

These verbs can also be followed by an *–ing* participle clause. On this pattern see c, class 3b. Examples:

I have never heard him say that	– Ik heb hem dat nooit horen zeggen
We saw the man jump out of the window	– We zagen de man uit het raam springen

The verbs *feel, hear* and *see* are followed by a *that*–clause when they denote mental rather than physical perception, as in:

I hear that he is in prison	– Ik hoor dat hij in de gevangenis zit

Apart from perception verbs, a bare infinitive clause is also found after the verbs *have* (in the meaning of 'cause' or 'experience'), *let* (in the meaning of 'permit') and *make* (in the meaning of 'force'). Examples:

> What would you have me do?   – Wat wil je dat ik doe?
> Don't let him escape   – Laat hem niet ontsnappen
> My parents made me take   – Mijn ouders dwongen me pianoles
>   piano lessons   te nemen

The verbs *help* and *know* (in the meaning of 'experience') can be followed by both a bare infinitive and a *to*–infinitive:

> Can you help me (to) wash up?   – Kun je me helpen afwassen?
> I have never known him (to)   – Ik heb hem nog nooit kwaad zien
>   lose his temper   worden

English differs from Dutch in requiring an *–ed* participle construction instead of a bare infinitive when the meaning is passive. On this pattern see d.

c. The non–finite clause is an *–ing* participle clause

A fairly large number of verbs can be followed by an *–ing* participle clause in English. Dutch usually has a finite clause or an infinitive clause.
We can distinguish three subclasses of verbs in English:

1. class 1 contains verbs that must be followed by an *–ing* participle clause;
2. class 2 comprises verbs that allow both an *–ing* participle clause and a *to*–infinitive clause;
3. class 3 consists of verbs all of which can be followed by an *–ing* participle clause, but some of which also allow a bare infinitive clause.

Class 1: *–ing* participle clause only

avoid	enjoy	(can't) help	(not) mind	risk
burst out	escape	imagine	miss	set about
consider	fancy	involve	quit	(can't) stand
detest	give up	justify	recall	dislike
go on	keep (on)	resent		

Examples:

You can't avoid answering that question	– Je moet die vraag wel beantwoorden
I am considering going abroad	– Ik overweeg naar het buitenland te gaan
Fancy being married to her	– Stel je voor dat je met haar getrouwd was
She doesn't mind coming earlier	– Ze vindt het niet erg eerder te komen
It kept (on) raining	– Het bleef regenen
When will you quit grumbling?	– Wanneer hou je nu eens op met mopperen?

Class 1 includes prepositional verbs of the type *object to*, phrasal–prepositional verbs of the type *look forward to* and idioms of the type *take advantage of*. In Dutch the corresponding complement clause is preceded by *er* + preposition. Examples:

I object to the children being woken up at 6	– Ik heb er bezwaar tegen dat de kinderen om 6 uur worden gewekt
She is looking forward to spending the weekend with you	– Ze verheugt er zich op het weekend met jou door te brengen
He always takes advantage of his wife being away	– Hij maakt er altijd misbruik van als zijn vrouw weg is

After some verbs, such as *want* and *won't/wouldn't bear* the *–ing* participle clause is passive in meaning:

My shoes want mending	– Mijn schoenen moeten worden gerepareerd
His language wouldn't bear repeating	– Zijn taal was niet voor herhaling vatbaar

Class 2: *–ing* participle clause or *to*–infinitive clause

attempt	continue	intend	need	remember
begin	dread	like	prefer	start

cease	forget	loathe	propose	try
commence	hate	love	regret	

In some cases the choice between an *–ing* participle clause and a *to*–infinitive clause makes little difference. Thus aspectual verbs like *begin, cease, commence, continue* and *start* can be followed by both patterns without any difference in meaning. Cf.:

I began learning/to learn English when I was 12	– Ik begon Engels te leren toen ik 12 was
After his retirement he continued writing/to write	– Na zijn pensionering bleef hij schrijven

After emotive verbs like *hate, like, loathe, love* and *prefer* the *–ing* construction is used to make general statements or to refer to something that actually happened. The infinitive pattern, on the other hand, is favoured when the reference is to specific occasions or to hypothetical contexts. Cf. the following pairs of sentences:

I hate jogging	– Ik heb een hekel aan joggen
I would hate to jog in this weather	– Ik zou het vreselijk vinden om in dit weer te joggen
We loved living in New York	– We vonden het heerlijk om in New York te wonen
I would love to live in New York again	– Ik zou dolgraag weer in New York wonen

Note that there is a clear temporal difference between the two patterns after the verbs *forget, remember* and *regret*.Cf.:

I have forgotten to invite her to my party	– Ik ben vergeten haar uit te nodigen op mijn feest
I shall never forget inviting her to my party last year	– Ik zal nooit vergeten dat ik haar verleden jaar heb uitgenodigd op mijn feest
Will you remember to post the letter?	– Wil je niet vergeten de brief te posten?
Do you remember posting the letter?	– Kun je je herinneren dat je de brief hebt gepost?
I regret to tell you that I'm divorced	– Het spijt me dat ik je moet vertellen dat ik gescheiden ben

| I regret telling you that I'm divorced | – Het spijt me dat ik je verteld heb dat ik gescheiden ben |

The verb *try* is followed by an *–ing* participle clause when it means 'to experiment with'. Otherwise it takes a *to*–infinitive clause. Cf.:

| Have you ever tried sleeping on your back? | – Heb je wel eens geprobeerd om op je rug te slapen? |
| I have always tried to be fair | – Ik heb altijd geprobeerd eerlijk te zijn |

After the verb *need* the *to*–infinitive must be passive:

| The kitchen needs painting/ to be painted | – De keuken moet geschilderd worden |

Class 3: *–ing* participle clause (some verbs also allow a bare infinitive clause)

All verbs in this class allow an *–ing* participle clause with a subject of its own. Those in subclass 3b can also be followed by a bare infinitive clause (see above, under b).

class 3a		class 3b	
catch	keep	feel	observe
find	leave	hear	see
get	set	notice	watch
have			

Examples:

We caught him opening the safe	– We betrapten hem bij het openen van de kluis
Don't keep him waiting	– Laat hem niet wachten
This book has set me thinking	– Dit boek heeft me aan het denken gezet

The difference between an *–ing* participle clause and a bare infinitive clause after perception verbs like those of class 3b is often a question of aspect. In the examples below the *–ing* clause denotes that the activity referred to was in progress, the infinitive clause implies that it was completed. Cf.:

We saw her crossing the street when she was hit by a car	– We zagen haar de straat oversteken toen ze door een auto werd aangereden
We saw her cross the street and enter a pub	– We zagen haar de straat oversteken en een cafe binnengaan

The 'understood' subject of a subjectless *–ing* participle clause is usually identical with the subject of the preceding verb, as in

I still enjoy playing tennis	– Ik vind tennissen nog altijd leuk

If the *–ing* participle clause that follows verbs of class 1 and class 2 has a subject of its own, the subject is

1. a noun in the genitive case or a possessive pronoun, or
2. a noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case

The first option is preferred in formal style, particularly when the subject has personal reference. Cf.:

Would you mind John's/ John smoking?	– Zou je het erg vinden als Jan rookte?
She did not like his/ him being a foreigner	– Ze vond het niet leuk dat hij een buitenlander was

Note that verbs of class 3 allow only the second option:

We heard a child crying/ *We heard a child's crying	– We hoorden een kind huilen

d. The non–finite clause is an *–ed* participle clause

Non–finite clauses containing an *–ed* participle always have a subject of their own. They are found after the following verbs:

feel	see	get	make	need
hear	watch	have	like	want

Examples:

She has seen her father shot dead	– Zij heeft haar vader zien doodschieten
I have heard that opera sung in English	– Ik heb die opera in het Engels horen zingen
You should get your car repaired	– Je moet je auto laten repareren
She can clearly make her presence felt	– Ze kan haar aanwezigheid duidelijk laten voelen
I want this film developed	– Ik wil deze film laten ontwikkelen

The above examples show that, although the meaning of the *–ed* participle clause is always passive, Dutch usually has an active infinitive.

The verb *have* is followed by this type of clause in the meaning of 'cause' or 'experience':

Dick has had his appendix removed	– Dick heeft zijn blinde darm laten verwijderen
Last year we had our house burgled twice	– Verleden jaar is er twee keer bij ons ingebroken

6.8.4   *Ditransitive complementation*

We speak of ditransitive complementation when the verb is followed by two complements. There are two types of ditransitive complementation:

1. the verb is followed by an indirect object and a direct object. The indirect object can usually be replaced by a prepositional phrase, introduced by *to* in English and by *aan* in Dutch. To this type belong verbs like

bring	lend	pay	send
give	offer	promise	show
hand	owe	read	teach
leave	pass	sell	tell

Examples:

She gave Eric the letter/ She gave the letter to Eric	– Ze gaf Eric de brief/Ze gaf de brief aan Eric

I have lent my neighbour some money/I have lent some money to my neighbour	– Ik heb mijn buurman wat geld geleend/Ik heb wat geld geleend aan mijn buurman

Some ditransitive verbs can only occur in the pattern direct object + *to* phrase in English. They include

address to	describe to	explain to	say to
announce to	devote to	prove to	suggest to
communicate to	dictate to	report to	

Their Dutch equivalents allow the pattern indirect object + direct object. Cf.:

He explained the problem to the children	– Hij legde de kinderen het probleem uit
Who suggested this plan to your parents?	– Wie heeft je ouders dit plan voorgesteld?

The verb *ask* requires a prepositional phrase introduced by *of* in English:

She asked the chairman a question/She asked a question of the chairman	– Ze stelde de voorzitter een vraag/ Ze stelde een vraag aan de voorzitter

After a ditransitive verb the direct object can take the form of a finite or non–finite clause in English as well as in Dutch:

She promised me that she would do her best	– Ze beloofde me dat ze haar best zou doen
The tourist office advised me to stay at the Hilton hotel	– De V.V.V. ried me aan om in het Hilton hotel te logeren

If the non–finite clause is introduced by a *WH*–word or by *how* in English, the equivalent in Dutch is a finite clause. Cf.:

Can you advise me who to consult?	– Kun je me adviseren wie ik moet raadplegen?
Ask your teacher how to pronounce this word	– Vraag je docent hoe je dit woord moet uitspreken

2. the verb is followed by a benefactive object and a direct object. The bene-
factive object can usually be replaced by a prepositional phrase introduced
by *for* in English and by *voor* in Dutch. Verbs that belong to this type in-
clude:

book	find	play	save
buy	make	pour	sing
cook	order	reserve	spare

Examples:

Will you buy me that record?/ Will you buy that record for me?	– Wil je me die plaat kopen?/Wil je die plaat voor me kopen?
He made us breakfast/He made breakfast for us	– Hij maakte ons het ontbijt/Hij maakte het ontbijt voor ons

In sentences of the type illustrated below Dutch has a so–called 'ondervindend'
object. This construction is impossible in English. Cf.:

That is too dangerous as far as I am concerned	– Dat is me te gevaarlijk
Did she make a fuss!	– Ze maakte me toch een drukte!
She doesn't work hard enough in his opinion	– Ze werkt hem niet hard genoeg
The tears ran down her cheeks	– De tranen liepen haar over de wangen

6.8.5   *Complex transitive complementation*

We speak of complex transitive complementation when the verb is followed by
a direct object and another constituent functioning as object attribute. The
most common patterns in both languages are:

1. Verb + NP + NP, as in

They have named their daughter Rachel	– Ze hebben hun dochter Rachel genoemd

Complex transitive verbs that occur in this pattern include:

appoint	choose	crown	make
baptize	christen	elect	name
call	consider	find	nominate

2. Verb + NP + Adj.P, as in

> She has dyed her hair green   – Ze heeft haar haar groen geverfd

Complex transitive verbs that occur in this pattern include:

call	dye	hold	paint	turn
colour	find	keep	prove	wash
drive	get	make	set	

In both languages the object attribute constituent can also be realized by a finite *WH*–clause, as in

> The present government has   – De huidige regering heeft de
>   made the economy what it is   economie gemaakt tot wat ze nu
>   today   is

The direct object constituent can be realized by anticipatory *it* in English and *het* in Dutch, followed by an extraposed clause. If the extraposed clause has a subject of its own, it can be non–finite in English, but must be finite in Dutch. Cf.:

> I find it strange that she has not   – Ik vind het vreemd dat ze niet heeft
>   applied   gesolliciteerd
> He thought it unlikely for his   – Hij achtte het onwaarschijnlijk dat
>   son to pass   zijn zoon zou slagen

Anticipatory *it* is optional in English in the expression *make (it) clear*:

> The treasurer has made (it)   – De penningmeester heeft duidelijk
>   clear that we must   gemaakt dat we moeten
>   economize   bezuinigen

6.9   Word order

The normal word order in English clauses is Subject–Predicator–Complement

(see 2.5.2 and 2.5.3). In Dutch the word order in main clauses is also basically Subject–Predicator–Complement, but in subordinate clauses it is Subject–Complement–Predicator. Compare, for example:

John adores beautiful women	– John adoreert mooie vrouwen
We know that John adores beautiful women	– We weten dat John mooie vrouwen adoreert/*not*: *...dat John adoreert mooie vrouwen
It is not true that Bob has always lived in London	– Het is niet waar dat Bob altijd in Londen heeft gewoond
He said he saw that film in New York last year	– Hij zei dat hij die film vorig jaar in New York heeft gezien

The first two examples show that in English the order of Subject, Predicator and Complement is the same in main clauses and in subordinate clauses. The position of Adverbials, which for reasons of space we cannot go into here, is also illustrated in the examples above (*always, in London, in New York, last year*). In Dutch main clauses the Predicator always occurs in second position, whereas in subordinate clauses it always occurs in final position, after any Adverbials of time, place, etc.

A special type of change in word order is called *inversion*, i.e. switching the order of subject and verb (for example, in questions). Inversion in Dutch involves putting the lexical verb or the (first) auxiliary before the subject. In English the usual kind of inversion is that of subject and (first) auxiliary, but if there is no auxiliary a form of *do* must be supplied. A less common kind of inversion in English involves putting the whole verb phrase before the subject, e.g. *Down came the rain*. We call these kinds of inversion subject–auxiliary and subject–verb inversion.

Inversion occurs in the following cases:

1. in interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences (questions) in English have subject–auxiliary inversion, not inversion of subject and lexical verb (cf. 6.2). In Dutch any finite lexical or auxiliary verb can be put before the subject. Examples:

Has the doctor examined you?	– Heeft de dokter jou onderzocht?
Did anyone see the burglar leave the house?	– Heeft iemand de inbreker het huis zien verlaten?/Zag iemand de inbreker het huis verlaten?
How much did they pay you?	– Hoeveel betaalden ze je?

Questions are sometimes put in a declarative form. Indirect questions in English have no inversion. In Dutch indirect questions there is the usual subordinate clause word order. For example:

| The doctor examined you? | – De dokter heeft jou onderzocht? |
| I want to know whether the doctor has examined you | – Ik wil weten of de dokter jou heeft onderzocht |

2. after negative adverbials

When negative adverbials occur at the beginning of a sentence for emphasis, English requires subject–auxiliary inversion and Dutch requires subject–verb inversion (cf. 6.3). For example:

| Never had she felt so happy before | – Nog nooit had zij zich zo gelukkig gevoeld |
| Under no circumstances did the bank want to give him a mortgage | – Onder geen voorwaarden wilde de bank hem een hypotheek geven |

3. after adverbials with *only*

| Only then did I realize what had happened | – Pas toen besefte ik wat er was gebeurd |

4. after place adverbials

When adverbials of place occur at the beginning of a sentence for emphasis, English sometimes has inversion of the subject and the whole verb phrase. This construction is common with verbs like *sit, lie, live, stand* and *hang*, and is restricted to descriptive style. In Dutch there is the usual subject–verb inversion. For example:

| On the wall was hanging the most beautiful painting I had ever seen | – Aan de muur hing het mooiste schilderij dat ik ooit had gezien |
| Around the corner lives the richest man in town | – Om de hoek woont de rijkste man van de stad |

Subject–verb inversion in English is limited to cases such as those above. In the majority of cases there is no inversion, e.g. *In London John visited the*

British Museum, not: *In London visited John the British Museum.* In Dutch there is always inversion of subject and verb in the main clause when the sentence opens with an Adverbial or with some other sentence element, e.g. *In Londen bezocht John het Brits Museum, Gisteren bestond de vereniging twee jaar, Die roman heb ik niet gelezen, Dat wil ik wel eens zien.* In all such cases English allows no inversion.

5. in conditional clauses

Had she listened to me, this would never have happened	– Had ze naar mij geluisterd, dan was dit nooit gebeurd
Were your mother alive, she would not approve of your marriage	– Leefde je moeder nog, dan zou ze je huwelijk niet goedkeuren

6.10   Concord

6.10.1   Introduction

Concord can be defined as agreement between two or more constituents of a phrase or a sentence. We can distinguish three types: concord of number (with which we will be mainly concerned), concord of person and concord of gender. For example, in the sentence

That woman is very proud of herself

there is concord of number in the NP *That woman* between the determiner *that* and the head *woman*, both of which are singular. There is also concord between the subject of the sentence (*That woman*) and the verb form (*is*), which agree in number (singular) and person (3rd person). Finally, there is concord between the subject (*That woman*) and the pronoun *herself*, which agree in number (singular), person (3rd person) and gender (feminine). In other words, both the form of the verb and the form of the *–self* pronoun are determined by the subject. A plural subject would require plural forms, as in:

Those women are very proud of themselves

In 6.10.2 we deal with concord in the noun phrase. Section 6.10.3 is devoted to concord of number between different parts of the sentence.

6.10.2   Concord in the noun phrase

In English and in Dutch nouns are normally pluralized when preceded by a numeral higher than one. This does not apply, however, to Dutch nouns denoting weight, measurement, price and time. Cf.:

    Margaret weighs 70 kilos   – Margaret weegt 70 kilo
    The area covers two square   – Het gebied is twee vierkante mijl
       miles
    This book costs five pounds   – Dit boek kost vijf pond
    It took one and a half weeks for – Het duurde anderhalve week
       the letter to arrive   voordat de brief er was

Note that English does not require the plural when the sequence numeral + noun is used attributively, as in:

    a three–year–old child   a ten–pound note
    a six–part television series   a four–lane motorway

In cases like the following, where the meaning is logically plural, English requires a plural noun, but Dutch uses the singular:

    pages 20 and 21   – pagina 20 en 21
    chapters 2 and 3   – hoofdstuk 2 en 3
    the 19th and 20th centuries   – de 19e en 20e eeuw
    the Conservative and Liberal   – de Conservatieve en Liberale Partij
       Parties

English also requires the plural in the denominator of fractions if the numerator is higher than one:

    three–quarters of my students – driekwart van mijn studenten
    two–thirds of his income   – tweederde van zijn inkomen

Two types of concord in the NP are found in Dutch, but not in English. First, the choice of the definite article (*de/het*) and of some determiners, such as the demonstrative pronouns (*deze/dit, die/dat*) is determined by the head of the NP. Cf.:

    the/this/that house   – het/dit/dat huis
    the/this/that university   – de/deze/die universiteit

the/these/those houses/   – de/deze/die huizen/ universiteiten
    universities

Secondly, most attributive adjectives take an inflectional *–e* in Dutch in the following cases:

1. before a singular *de*–word:

    de/een/deze/zo'n leuke jongen

2. before a singular *het*–word preceded by one of the determiners *het, dit, dat*, a possessive pronoun or a genitive:

    het/dit/zijn leuke meisje

3. before a plural noun:

    (de/die/zo'n) leuke jongens/meisjes

In all other cases attributive adjectives in Dutch do not take an inflectional *–e*. Cf.:

    (veel/weinig/wat) Engels geld
    een/geen/ieder/zo'n/wat een leuk meisje

6.10.3   Concord in the sentence

6.10.3.1   Subject–verb concord

The general rule, which applies both in English and in Dutch, is that a singular subject requires a singular verb and a plural subject requires a plural verb. Cf.:

My son wastes/My sons waste a   – Mijn zoon verknoeit/Mijn zoons
    lot of time doing computer   verknoeien een hoop tijd met
    games   computerspelletjes

The examples below show that Dutch has more verb forms than English to mark subject–verb concord explicitly. In English subject–verb concord is in fact restricted to the third person singular present tense indicative. Cf.:

Present tense

English	:	I/you/we/they *work*
		he/she/it *works*

Dutch	:	ik *werk*
		jij/U *werkt*
		wij/jullie/zij *werken*

Past tense

English	:	all persons singular and plural: *worked*

Dutch	:	ik/jij/U/hij/zij/het *werkte*
		wij/jullie/zij *werkten*

Collective nouns can be followed by a singular or plural verb in English, depending on whether the noun is considered to refer to a group as a whole or to the individual members of a group. Collective nouns can also be referred to by singular (*it/its*) or plural (*they/them, their*) pronouns. Dutch treats collective nouns as singular. Examples:

The government has decided to change its foreign policy	– De regering heeft besloten haar buitenlandse politiek te wijzigen
The government have kept none of their promises	– De regering heeft zich aan geen van haar beloften gehouden
The public is/are requested to keep dogs on the leash	– Het publiek wordt verzocht honden aan de lijn te houden
The audience were laughing their heads off	– Het publiek lachte zich dood

The noun *police* is always followed by a plural verb in English, whereas *the United States* is usually treated as singular. Names of countries, towns and counties are treated as plural when the reference is to teams. Examples:

The police have been looking for him since yesterday	– De politie zoekt hem sinds gisteren
The United States does not agree to the latest proposals	– De Verenigde Staten gaan niet met de jongste voorstellen accoord
England have usually beaten Scotland at Wembley	– Engeland heeft op Wembley meestal van Schotland gewonnen

The words *everybody/everyone, somebody/someone, anybody/anyone* and *nobody/no one* are always followed by a singular verb in English, but can be referred to by the plural pronouns *they, them, their* and *themselves*. The corresponding words in Dutch are treated as singular and are usually referred to by *hij, zijn* and *zich*. Cf.:

Everyone thinks he does his best/Everyone thinks they do their best	– Iedereen vindt dat hij zijn best doet
Everybody behaved himself/ themselves	– Iedereen gedroeg zich netjes
Nobody knows what they are supposed to do	– Niemand weet wat hij moet doen
Nobody has been fired, have they?	– Er is toch niemand ontslagen?

None can take either a singular or a plural verb:

I have written to all my friends, but none (of them) has/have answered my letter	– Ik heb al mijn vrienden geschreven, maar nog niemand heeft mijn brief beantwoord

In cleft sentences the form of the verb is always singular in English. In Dutch, however, the verb form is determined by the number of the following NP. Cf.:

It is figures like these that count	– Het zijn cijfers zoals deze die tellen
It was the Americans who were responsible	– Het waren de Amerikanen die verantwoordelijk waren

6.10.3.2   Other types of concord

Apart from subject–verb concord, English sentences also display concord between the subject and the direct object, the subject and the subject attribute, the subject and the adverbial and the direct object and the object attribute. The examples below are all cases of concord of number. They show that, if the meaning is logically plural, English prefers plural forms for both parts of the sentence involved, where Dutch often has the singular.

Subject–direct object concord

Lots of girls were wearing   – Veel meisjes droegen een T–shirt
   T–shirts
Ten miners lost their lives   – Tien mijnwerkers verloren het leven

Subject–subject attribute concord

Alice's parents are both doctors   – De ouders van Alice zijn beiden arts
They became millionaires   – Ze werden van de ene dag op de
   overnight   andere miljonair

Subject–adverbial concord

Our neighbours have lived in   – Onze buren wonen hun hele leven al
   London all their lives   in Londen
The children put the sweets in   – De kinderen stopten het snoepgoed
   their pockets   in hun zak

Direct object–object attribute concord

They call themselves experts in   – Ze noemen zich expert op dit gebied
   this field
Some men treat their wives as   – Sommige mannen behandelen hun
   doormats   vrouw als voetveeg

Appendix I: List of irregular verbs in English

Base	Past tense	–ed participle	
abide	abode, abided	abode, abided	*verdragen, verblijven*
arise	arose	arisen	*ontstaan, opkomen*
awake	awoke, awaked	awoken, awaked	*wakker worden, wakker maken*
be	was, were	been	*zijn*
bear	bore	borne	*dragen, verdragen*
beat	beat	beaten	*slaan, verslaan*
become	became	become	*worden*
befall	befell	befallen	*gebeuren, overkomen*
beget	begot	begotten	*verwekken*
begin	began	begun	*beginnen*
behold	beheld	beheld	*aanschouwen*
bend	bent	bent	*buigen*
bereave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved	*beroven*
beseech	besought, beseeched	besought, beseeched	*smeken*
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted	*wedden*
bid	bad(e), bid	bade, bid, bidden	*gebieden, verzoeken*
bind	bound	bound	*binden*
bite	bit	bitten	*bijten*
bleed	bled	bled	*bloeden*
blow	blew	blown	*blazen, waaien*
break	broke	broken	*breken*
breed	bred	bred	*fokken, kweken*
bring	brought	brought	*brengen*

broadcast	broadcast, broadcasted	broadcast, broadcasted	*uitzenden*
build	built	built	*bouwen*
burn	burnt, burned	burnt, burned	*branden, verbranden*
burst	burst	burst	*barsten*
buy	bought	bought	*kopen*
cast	cast	cast	*werpen, gieten*
catch	caught	caught	*vangen*
choose	chose	chosen	*kiezen*
cleave	cleft, clove, cleaved	cleft, cloven, cleaved	*klieven, splijten*
cling	clung	clung	*zich vastklemmen*
come	came	come	*komen*
cost	cost	cost	*kosten*
creep	crept	crept	*kruipen*
cut	cut	cut	*snijden*
deal	dealt	dealt	*handelen*
dig	dug	dug	*graven*
do	did	done	*doen*
draw	drew	drawn	*tekenen, trekken*
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed	*dromen*
drink	drank	drunk	*drinken*
drive	drove	driven	*rijden, besturen, drijven*
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled	*wonen*
eat	ate	eaten	*eten*
fall	fell	fallen	*vallen*
feed	fed	fed	*(zich) voeden*
feel	felt	felt	*(zich) voelen*
fight	fought	fought	*vechten*
find	found	found	*vinden*
flee	fled	fled	*vluchten*
fling	flung	flung	*smijten, gooien*
fly	flew	flown	*vliegen*
forbid	forbade, forbad	forbidden	*verbieden*
forget	forgot	forgotten	*vergeten*
forgive	forgave	forgiven	*vergeven*
forsake	forsook	forsaken	*in de steek laten*
freeze	froze	frozen	*bevriezen, vriezen*

get	got	got	*krijgen*
give	gave	given	*geven*
go	went	gone	*gaan*
grind	ground	ground	*malen, slijpen*
grow	grew	grown	*groeien, worden, verbouwen*
hang	hung, (hanged)	hung, (hanged)	*hangen, (ophangen)*
have	had	had	*hebben*
hear	heard	heard	*horen*
heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove	*heffen, op en neer gaan*
hide	hid	hidden	*(zich) verbergen*
hit	hit	hit	*treffen*
hold	held	held	*houden*
hurt	hurt	hurt	*bezeren, pijn doen*
keep	kept	kept	*houden*
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled	*knielen*
knit	knitted, knit	knitted, knit	*breien, fronsen*
know	knew	known	*weten, kennen*
lay	laid	laid	*leggen*
lead	led	led	*leiden*
lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned	*leunen*
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped	*springen*
learn	learnt, learned	learnt, learned	*leren*
leave	left	left	*laten, verlaten*
lend	lent	lent	*lenen*
let	let	let	*laten, verhuren*
lie	lay	lain	*liggen*
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted	*aansteken, verlichten*
lose	lost	lost	*verliezen*
make	made	made	*maken*
mean	meant	meant	*bedoelen*
meet	met	met	*ontmoeten*
mow	mowed	mown, mowed	*maaien*
pay	paid	paid	*betalen*
put	put	put	*leggen, zetten, plaatsen*

quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted	*verlaten, weggaan*
read	read	read	*lezen*
rid	rid, ridded	rid, ridded	*verlossen*
ride	rode	ridden	*rijden*
ring	rang	rung	*bellen, klinken*
rise	rose	risen	*opstaan, stijgen*
run	ran	run	*hardlopen*
saw	sawed	sawn, sawed	*zagen*
say	said	said	*zeggen*
see	saw	seen	*zien*
seek	sought	sought	*zoeken*
sell	sold	sold	*verkopen*
send	sent	sent	*zenden, sturen*
set	set	set	*zetten*
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed	*naaien*
shake	shook	shaken	*schudden*
shear	sheared	shorn, sheared	*scheren (van schapen)*
shed	shed	shed	*storten (bloed, tranen)*
shine	shone, shined	shone, shined	*schijnen*
shoot	shot	shot	*schieten*
show	showed	shown	*tonen, laten zien*
shrink	shrank	shrunk	*krimpen, terugdeinzen*
shut	shut	shut	*sluiten*
sing	sang	sung	*zingen*
sink	sank	sunk	*zinken*
sit	sat	sat	*zitten*
slay	slew	slain	*doden*
sleep	slept	slept	*slapen*
slide	slid	slid	*glijden*
sling	slung	slung	*werpen, wegslingeren*
slink	slunk	slunk	*sluipen*
slit	slit	slit	*splijten*
smell	smelt, smelled	smelt, smelled	*ruiken*
sow	sowed	sown, sowed	*zaaien*
speak	spoke	spoken	*spreken*
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled	*spellen*

spend	spent	spent	*uitgeven, doorbrengen*
spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled	*morsen, knoeien*
spin	spun, span	spun	*spinnen*
spit	spat, spit	spat, spit	*spuwen*
split	split	split	*splijten*
spoil	spoilt, spoiled	spoilt, spoiled	*bederven*
spread	spread	spread	*zich verspreiden, spreiden*
spring	sprang	sprung	*springen*
stand	stood	stood	*staan*
steal	stole	stolen	*stelen, sluipen*
stick	stuck	stuck	*steken, plakken*
sting	stung	stung	*steken, prikken*
stink	stank	stunk	*stinken*
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed	*strooien*
stride	strode	stridden, strid, strode	*schrijden*
strike	struck	struck	*slaan, staken*
string	strung	strung	*rijgen, bespannen*
strive	strove, strived	striven, strived	*streven*
swear	swore	sworn	*zweren, vloeken*
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated	*zweten*
sweep	swept	swept	*vegen*
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled	*zwellen*
swim	swam	swum	*zwemmen*
swing	swung	swung	*zwaaien*
take	took	taken	*nemen*
teach	taught	taught	*leren, onderwijzen*
tear	tore	torn	*scheuren*
tell	told	told	*vertellen, zeggen*
think	thought	thought	*denken*
throw	threw	thrown	*gooien, werpen*
thrust	thrust	thrust	*stoten*
tread	trod	trodden	*(be)treden*
understand	understood	understood	*begrijpen, verstaan*
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked	*ontwaken, wekken*

wear	wore	worn	*dragen (aan het lichaam)*
weave	wove	woven	*weven*
weep	wept	wept	*wenen*
win	won	won	*winnen*
wind	wound	wound	*winden*
wring	wrung	wrung	*wringen*
write	wrote	written	*schrijven*

Appendix II: Inventory of Spelling Rules

This Appendix deals with the most important spelling conventions in English, in particular with the spelling changes that occur under certain circumstances. It does not deal with English spelling in general, or with punctuation. The rules that concern us here, will be discussed under five general headings: doubling of final consonant, final *–e*, addition of *e*, final *–y* and final *–o*.

This survey is by no means complete. When in doubt, consult your dictionaries.

Rules for the pronunciation of the inflectional suffixes *–s, –ed* and *–ing* are given in Appendix III.

Doubling of final consonant

General Rule: a consonant symbol is doubled if it is final in an accented syllable, and if the vowel preceding it is spelled with a single letter. Examples:

beg – begged/begging/beggar   nun – nunnery
big – bigger/biggest   permit – permitted/permitting
fat – fatter/fattest/fatty/fatten red – redder/reddest/reddish
fun – funny   regret – regretted/regretting/
                                   regrettable
hot – hotter/hottest   run – running/runner
Jim – Jimmy   snob – snobbish/snobbery
knit – knitted/knitting   wit – witty

However, there is no doubling of the final base consonant in the following examples:

sleep – sleeping/sleeper/sleepy (two vowel–letters before the consonant)
hold – holding/holder (two consonants)
visit – visited/visiting/visitor (preceding vowel unstressed)
use – uses/used/using (ends in a vowel–letter)

The following exceptions to the general rule are worth noting:

(a) In BrE final –*l* or –*m* is normally doubled, even if the preceding vowel is unstressed. Examples:

cancel – cancelled/cancelling/cancellation
dial – dialled/dialling
signal – signalled/signalling/signaller
travel – travelled/travelling/traveller
program(me) – programmed/programming/programmer
diagram – diagrammed/diagramming/diagrammatical

In AmE there is no doubling of final –*l* or –*m* after an unstressed vowel, e.g.:

dial – dialed/dialing
travel – traveled/traveling/traveler
program – programed/programer

However, in accordance with the general rule mentioned above, –*l* and –*m* are doubled, in both AmE and BrE, if the preceding vowel is stressed, e.g.:

compel – compelled/compelling/compellable
control – controlled/controlling/controllable/controller

(b) In BrE some words ending in –*p* double the final consonant, even if the preceding vowel is unstressed. Examples:

worship – worshipped/worshipping/worshipper
kidnap – kidnapped/kidnapping/kidnapper

However, most words ending in –*p* have the regular spelling:

develop – developed/developing/developer
gossip – gossiped/gossiping/gossipy/gossiper

(c) Verbs ending in –*c* have inflected or derived forms with –*ck* + suffix. Examples:

panic – panicked/panicking/panicky
picnic – picnicked/picnicking/picnicker
traffic – trafficked/trafficking/trafficker

(d) final *–g* in the verbs *humbug* and *zigzag* is also doubled: *humbugged, humbugging* and *zigzagged, zigzagging*.

Doubling of final –r

The general spelling rule that a consonant is doubled if it is final in an accented syllable, and if the vowel preceding it is spelled with a single letter also applies to final *–r*. Examples:

> deter – deterred/deterring/deterrent
> occur – occurred/occurring/occurrence
> prefer – preferred/preferring

But: preference (unstressed vowel)
     preferable (unstressed vowel)
     preferential (unstressed vowel)

In accordance with the general rule, final *–r* is not doubled in *differ, offer, sever, suffer*, etc.

Reduction of double consonant

Certain words ending in a double consonant, especially *–ll*, sometimes lose one consonant in compounds. For example:

> all   – almighty, almost, already, but: *all right* (which is usually preferred to *alright*)
> fill   – fulfil (AmE. fulfill)
> full   – beautiful, hopeful, successful, wonderful, fulsome, fulfil
> well   – welcome, welfare; but not in: well–being, well–known
> roll   – enrol

Note also the spelling of the words *skilful* and *wilful*, where the second *–l* of *skill* and *will* is dropped before the suffix.

Final –e

General Rule: Final mute *–e* is dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel, but retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant. Thus, final *–e* is dropped in the following examples:

change – changed/changing
create – created/creating/creative/creation/creator
late – later/latest/latish
move – moved/moving/mover/movable
refuse – refused/refusing/refusal

The following exceptions to this rule are worth noting:

(a) Final *–e* is retained in words ending in *–ce* or *–ge* before a suffix beginning
with *a* or *o*. This is done to indicate that *–ce* and *–ge* are to be pronounced
/s/ and /dʒ/ respectively. Examples:

notice – noticeable
change – changeable
courage – courageous

Before suffixes beginning with *e* or *i* (e.g.: *–ed* or *–ing*) final *–e* is dropped.
Examples:

notice – noticed/noticing
change – changed/changing
urge – urged/urgent

Note: age – ageing *or* aging

Exceptions are verbs ending in *–ee, –ye* or *–oe* and verbs like *hinge* and
singe, which do not drop final *–e* before *–ing*. Examples:

agree – agreeing   hoe – hoeing
dye – dyeing   singe – singeing

These verbs do, however, drop the *–e* before *–ed*: *agreed, dyed, hoed,
singed*.

(b) Final *–ie* changes into *–y* before the suffix *–ing*:

die – dying   lie – lying   tie – tying

(c) Final *–le* changes into *–ly* in the formation of adverbs from adjectives.
Examples:

incredible – incredibly   noble – nobly   terrible – terribly

Note also: *true – truly, due – duly, whole – wholly*.

(d) Some adjectives ending in *–able* have two forms, one with and one without the mute *–e* of the base. Examples:

like – likeable/likable
live – liveable/livable
size – sizeable/sizable

Addition of –e

General Rule: in bases ending in sibilants the *–s* suffix is spelled *–es* instead of *–s*, unless the base is already spelled with a mute *–e*. Examples:

brush – brushes   match – matches
gas – gases   touch – touches
kiss – kisses   wish – wishes

In the following words the *–s* suffix (which is the marker of the plural of regular nouns and of the third person singular present tense of verbs) is regularly spelled *–s*, either because the final consonant is not a sibilant or because the base is spelled with a mute *–e*:

boy – boys   bridge – bridges
hospital – hospitals   carriage – carriages
pig – pigs   change – changes

Note that in the verbs *do* and *go e* is also added before *–s*: *does* and *goes*.

The genitive *–s* suffix never takes an extra *e* in the spelling. Even with nouns ending in a sibilant, the genitive suffix is spelled *–'s* or ' (apostrophe) in the singular, and ' in the plural of regular nouns. For example:

Katz'(s) theory   Achilles' heel
Burns'(s) poems   The United States' military power
Wilkins'(s) latest book

Final –y

There are three general rules that are relevant here:

(1) final *–y* + *–s* suffix changes into *–ies*,
(2) final *–y* + *–ed* suffix changes into *–ied*, and
(3) final *–y* + *–er* or *–est* suffix changes into *–ier* or *–iest*,

if final *–y* is preceded by a consonant. Otherwise *–y* is retained. Thus:

(1) Post–consonantal *–y* + *–s* becomes *–ies*. Examples:

    baby – babies   bury – buries
    city – cities   carry – carries

But:

    boy – boys   enjoy – enjoys
    day – days   obey – obeys

Proper names do not normally change *–y* into *–ies*: *the Kennedys, both Germanys*.

Note that the general rule does not apply when final *–y* is followed by the genitive *–s* suffix, spelled *'s*. In that case *–y* is retained. For example:

    baby – baby's   city – city's

(2) Post–consonantal *–y* + *–ed* becomes *–ied*. Examples:

    bury – buried   carry – carried

But:

    enjoy – enjoyed   obey – obeyed

Exceptions are: *lay – laid, pay – paid, say – said*.

(3) Post–consonantal *–y* + *–er* or *–est* becomes *–ier* or *–iest*. Examples:

    angry – angrier/angriest   dry – drier/driest

Also: *fly – flier* (or *flyer*), *carry – carrier* (where *–er* is the agentive suffix).

But:

gay – gayer/gayest   grey – greyer/greyest

Also: *employ – employer, play – player, pray – prayer*.

Note that the adjectives *sly, shy, spry* and *wry* have comparative/superlative forms with *y* (e.g.: *wryer/wryest*) or with *i* (e.g.: *wrier/wriest*).

   It is worth noticing that final *–y* also becomes *i* before many other suffixes, including *–ly, –able, –less, –ness* and *–ment*, but not before *–ing* or *–ish*. Examples:

envy – enviable   merry – merrily/merriment
funny – funnily   pity – pitiless/pitiable
happy – happiness/happily

But: *càrrying, enjoying, envying, pitying*; also: *dandyish, shyish, sissyish*.

Note that in the spelling of *boyish* and *greyish* the *–y* is regularly retained, since it is preceded by a vowel.

Final –o

Nouns ending in *–o* take either *–s* or *–es* in the plural. There is no general rule for the distribution of these spellings, apart from the fact that after a vowel (e.g. *embryos, folios, radios*) and in proper names (e.g. *Eskimos, Filipinos, Navahos*) the spelling is always *–os*. An exception is *Negro – Negroes*. Thus, post–consonantal final *–o* may change into either *–os* or *–oes*, while some nouns in *–o* may have both spellings. Here are some examples:

	–os	*–oes*
concerto	concertos	
disco	discos	
dynamo	dynamos	
kimono	kimonos	
kilo	kilos	
photo	photos	
piano	pianos	
pro	pros	
radio	radios	
solo	solos	
tango	tangos	
buffalo	buffalos	buffaloes
cargo	cargos	cargoes
motto	mottos	mottoes
tornado	tornados	tornadoes
volcano	volcanos	volcanoes
echo		echoes
embargo		embargoes
go		goes (as in *He had several*
		goes at it)
hero		heroes
potato		potatoes
tomato		tomatoes
torpedo		torpedoes
veto		vetoes

Verbs ending in *–o* usually have *–es* in the third person singular of the present tense. They regularly take *–ed* for the past tense or the past participle, and *–ing* for the present participle. Examples:

echo – echoes/echoed/echoing   radio – radioes/radioed/radioing

tango – tangoes/tangoed/   torpedo – torpedoes/torpedoed/

   tangoing   torpedoing

Appendix III: The pronunciation of the –*s*, –*ed* and –*ing* suffixes

The –s suffix

There are some general rules for the pronunciation of the –*s* suffix, which may be used in English as the marker of:

    (1) the plural of regular nouns
    (2) the genitive singular of nouns
    (3) the third person singular of the present tense indicative of verbs

The –*s* suffix is pronounced either /ɪz/, /s/ or /z/ depending on the final phoneme of the base (i.e. the distribution of the three sounds is phonologically conditioned):

/ɪz/: when the base ends in a sibilant, i.e. after /s, z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/, e.g.:

NOUNS		VERBS	
horses/horse's	roses	despises	urges
judges/judge's	wishes	kisses	wishes
carriages	kisses	buzzes	rises
bridges	noises	catches	searches

/s/: when the final phoneme of the base is voiceless and is not a sibilant, i.e. /p, t, k, f, θ/, e.g.:

NOUNS		VERBS	
athletes/athlete's	roofs	drinks	likes
cups	sharks	erupts	meets
drinks	ships	hates	stops
myths	socks	laughs	waits

/z/: in all other cases, e.g.:

NOUNS		VERBS	
boys/boy's	kings/king's	dares	leaves
cars	jobs	describes	loves
days	lions	enjoys	sings
flags	wings	functions	wears

The third person singular present tense of the verbs *do* and *say* is irregular: *does*/d ʌ z/and *says*/sez/.

Note that the pronunciation of the plural –*s* suffix of regular nouns does not differ from that of the genitive singular –*s* suffix (spelled *'s*):

judges/judge's, boys/boy's and *athletes/athlete's*

Note also that the genitive plural of regular nouns ending in –*s*, marked by an apostrophe, is not pronounced, e.g.: *soldiers' songs*. Thus, /səʊldʒəz/ corresponds to *soldiers* (plural), *soldier's* (genitive sing.) and *soldiers'* (genitive plural). However, the genitive plural of irregular nouns like *men, women, children,* is *men's, women's, children's*. The zero genitive is also sometimes used with Greek names of more than one syllable (*Socrates' life, Euripides' tragedies, Achilles' heel*), and in other names ending in /z/, such as *Burns', Dickens',* by the side of *Burns's, Dickens's*. The pronunciation of these genitive forms is as follows, the less common variants being given in brackets:
     /'sɒkrəti:z/,/ˌjʊə'rɪpɪdi:z/,/ə'kɪli:z/,
     /'bɜ:nzɪz (bɜ:nz)/,/'dɪkɪnzɪz ('dɪkɪnz)/.

The –ed suffixes

The –*ed* suffixes (for the past tense and the –*ed* participle) of all regular verbs are pronounced /ɪd/, /t/ or /d/ depending on the nature of the final phoneme of the base:

/ɪd/   : when the final phoneme of the base is /t/ or /d/, e.g.:

       dated, devoted, ended, folded, hated, wanted

/t/   : when the final phoneme of the base is voiceless and is not /t/, i.e. /p, k, f, θ, s, ʃ, tʃ/, e.g.:

   dropped, finished, latched, laughed, liked, picked

/d/ : in all other cases, e.g.:

   complained, described, functioned, loved, occurred, travelled

The –ing suffix

The *–ing* suffix is always realized as /ɪŋ/, e.g.: *dropping, flashing, laughing, liking, travelling, xeroxing*. The final nasal is sometimes realized as alveolar /n/ instead of velar /ŋ/. Such forms with /ɪn/ are generally regarded as substandard.

Spelling rules

See Appendix II for the spelling changes that occur when words take the *–s, –ed* or *–ing* suffix.

Select Bibliography

Aarts, F. and J. Aarts, *English Syntactic Structures. Functions and Categories in Sentence Analysis*, Oxford, 1982. *Workbook*, Oxford, 1984.

Beukema, F.H. and G.H. Rigter, *Conscious Command*, Apeldoorn, 1981.

Donaldson, B.C., *Dutch Reference Grammar*, 's–Gravenhage, 1981.

Geerts, G., W. Haeseryn, J. de Rooij and M.C. van den Toorn, *Algemene Nederlandse Spraakkunst*, Groningen, 1984.

Huddleston, R., *Introduction to the Grammar of English*, Cambridge, 1984.

Koning, P.L. and P.J. van der Voort, *An English Grammar for Student Teachers*, Groningen, 1984.

Kruisinga, E., *An English Grammar for Dutch Students*, 2 vols., Utrecht, 1916.

Levend Nederlands, Department of Linguistics, University of Cambridge/Afdeling Toegepaste Taalwetenschap, Vrije Universiteit te Amsterdam; Cambridge, 1975.

Quirk, R., S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik, *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, London, 1985.

Shetter, William Z., *Introduction to Dutch*, Leiden, 1984.

Van Ek, J.A. and N.J. Robat, *The Student's Grammar of English,* Oxford, 1984. *Workbook,* Meppel, 1985.

Wekker, H. and L. Haegeman, *A Modern Course in English Syntax*, Beckenham, Kent, 1985.

Zandvoort, R.W., *A Handbook of English Grammar*, Groningen, 1945.

INDEX